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THE FIRST YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

SOME PRINCIPLES IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

BY

LUCY M. SALMON

VASSAR COLLEGE

A PAPER PREPARED FOR DISCUSSION AT THE GENERAL MEETING OF THE SOCIETY IN CONJUNCTION WITH THE MEETING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE AT CHICAGO, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 27, AT 2:00 P.M.

A SPECIAL MEETING FOR THE ACTIVE MEMBERS OF THE SOCIETY WILL BE HELD FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 28, AT 9:30 A.M.

EDITED BY

CHARLES A. McMURRY

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NOTICE

THE active members of the Society are specially requested to make a careful study of this paper on history before coming to the Chicago meetings.

It is suggested that active members institute small meetings at home for preliminary study of the paper.

The second part of the Yearbook will be published and sent out to members previous to the meeting of the National Educational Association at Minneapolis in July. An important paper on Geography, its scientific aspects, has been arranged for.

Any of the previous publications of the Herbart Society, or the bound volume of the five Yearbooks and Supplements can be obtained from the Secretary.

CHARLES A. MCMURRY.

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

The following suggestions in regard to some of the principles underlying the teaching of history are submitted to the members of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, less with the desire that these suggestions should be adopted and followed by them than with the hope that, through the consideration of them by that body, other and truer principles may be formulated for the help and guidance of teachers of history.

I have not hesitated in several instances to plagiarize from myself, and to incorporate in the paper several passages that have appeared elsewhere.

L. M. S.

POUGHKEEPSIE, N. Y.
January 9, 1902.

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THE FIRST YEARBOOK

SOME PRINCIPLES IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

I.

THE RECORD AND THE RECORDER.

What is history?

"A narrative, oral or written, of past events; a story."—*Century Dictionary.*

Innumerable definitions of history have been made from the standpoint of the historian, the poet, the *littérateur*, the philosopher,[1] but the one given may be accepted as a working definition that will fulfill all practical needs. It involves three factors:

Something to be narrated, or recorded.

A narrator, or recorder.

A narrative, or record.

The subject of the record.—This may be classed under three heads:

Inorganic life—the record which is given by geology.

[1] "History is humanity becoming and being conscious of itself."—*Droysen.*

"History is only the utilization of documents."—*Langlois and Seignobos.*

"History is the essence of innumerable biographies."—*Carlyle,*

"History is past politics; politics is present history."—*Freeman.*

"History is a voice forever sounding across the centuries the laws of right and wrong."—*Froude.*

"History is the cyclic poem written by Time upon the memories of men. The Past, like an inspired rhapsodist, fills the theater of everlasting generations with her harmony."—*Shelley.*

"Facts are not the dross of history, but the true metal, and the historian is a worker in that metal. He has nothing to do with practical politics, or with forecasts of the future."—*Birrell.*

"History is philosophy teaching by example."—*Bolingbroke.*

"Universal history is the unfolding of spiritual being in time, as Nature is the unfolding of the divine idea in space. History is progress in the consciousness of freedom."—*Hegel.*

Plant and animal life—the record of which is given by paleontology.

All human activities—the record of which is given by art, literature, and innumerable other agencies.

The recorders.—These may be classed as,

The unconscious and impersonal agents—nature, language, tradition.

The conscious agents—the artist, the annalist.

The record.—This may be classed according to the place where it has been made:

It has been left on the surface of the earth by unconscious physical agents. The study of this record gives us the subjects of geology and geography.

It has been left on the physical features of man. This record forms the basis of the science of anthropology.

It has been made by spoken and written language. The record thus left is the subject of the science of philology.

A record has been left by tradition, by folk lore, by institutions that have long since passed away except in remote places, and by existing forms and ceremonies, the original meaning of which has been long since forgotten. These are the records left by recorders acting unconsciously and collectively. The sciences treating of these various subjects have been as yet but imperfectly defined.

Records have been preserved through monuments. These are found in architecture, sculpture, casts, paintings, mosaics, coins, medals, seals, gems, cameos, heraldic emblems, armor, illuminated manuscripts, tapestries, rugs, wood carving, wood inlaying, and similar forms of art. These are the records made by the artist or by the artisan, acting often unconsciously and subordinating accuracy of historical fact to artistic presentation. Since the primary object of the artist has been artistic rather than historical, the record left by him has often been incidental to his main purpose. The term art may be used to cover all the subjects treated in this form of the record.

A record has been left in all forms of literature, as in poems, dramas, novels, and essays. In these, as in art, the record has in general been an unconscious one. It has been often not technically a record but rather an instantaneous photograph of manners and customs.

A record has again been made through laws, charters, and other

official documents—a record that in its turn is a photograph of the institutions of the period.

Finally, a written record has been preserved that gives consciously an unembellished statement of facts and events. This record may have been written with a tool on stone or metal—its interpretation is a work of epigraphy. It may have been written with a pen on parchment—the study of this record is made in paleography. It may have been printed from type—but no word as yet defines in precise terms this form of the record and distinguishes it from history on the one hand and from literature on the other.

It is thus necessary to distinguish between the record and the recorder, on the one hand, and history and the historian on the other hand. The record is the original portrayal of events that has been made quite as often unconsciously as consciously; it is the raw material from which the historian constructs history. The historian may in a sense be considered an interpreter or a translator, since he judges in regard to the authenticity of the record, compares different records, and fuses them all into an organic history. Technically any agent making a record may be called an historian; in this sense the impersonal agents, as nature and language, may be called historians. But the record to which the term history may be applied is that made by the historian who consciously gathers together from every source the primary records made by other agencies, and combines them into an orderly systematic whole. He makes of the various records that may have no organic relation to each other an organic history. History proper may thus be considered derived history as distinguished from the primary record.

The sources of historical knowledge, therefore, that the historian has at his command are physical, linguistic, social, monumental, and written. The historian uses all of these sources, but naturally finds the greater part of his material and that which bears most directly on his work, in the monumental and in the written record. These two classes of records often supplement each other; sometimes it is the monumental record alone that has survived, while again that has perished, and the historian must depend entirely on the written record. The historian is on the surest footing when he finds both written and monumental record. The parallelism and interconnection between the two may be illustrated by the following examples:

The Trojan War.—The literary record that has survived is found

in Homer and in Virgil. These poems give a series of brilliant pictures of life in a period long antedating that in which the poems were written. The records were handed down by tradition and by written evidence that has long since perished, and hence they cannot be considered an exact scientific account of the events of the period described.[1]

The monumental record of the period is being brought to light through the uncovering of buried cities, palaces, temples, tombs, and other architectural remains of an early civilization, the literary records of which have for the most part perished.

The Battle of Salamis.— A literary record is given in the accounts of Æschylus and of Herodotus.

The modern study of the topography of the scene of the battle modifies and corrects the theory of modern historians which is commonly supposed to be supported by the language of Herodotus, but is proved to be at variance with it.[2]

The Dacian War.— The literary record has entirely perished.

The monumental record is found in the bas-reliefs of Trajan's column.

The Norman Conquest.— The literary record is given by Ordericus Vitalis — the greater part of it written some years after the events described.

The monumental record is found in the Bayeux tapestries — contemporaneous accounts woven by Queen Matilda and her handmaidens.

Mediæval Italy.—"We must study the Pisan Campo Santo with Dante in our hands."[3]

It is evident from these illustrations, which could be multiplied indefinitely, that although "the development of literature and art does not indeed always proceed on the same lines or at the same pace,"[4] yet each supplements and corrects the other. In the history of Greece, the literary and the monumental record supplement and corroborate each other; in the history of Rome, there are serious gaps in the literary record which often leaves the monumental record the main dependence ;

[1] For the sources used by Virgil, see NETTLESHIP, *Essays in Latin Literature*, Chap. VI, Pt. II.

[2] W. W. GOODWIN, "The Battle of Salamis," in *Papers of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens*, I, 239–62.

[3] SIR CHARLES NEWTON, p. 25.

[4] ERNEST A. GARDNER, in D. C. HOGARTH, *Authority and Archæology*, p. 266.

in mediæval history the two run parallel; in modern history the main dependence is on the printed record. The written record is perishable, hence the great dependence on monumental records for early history. But the written record is often the only one that has been consciously made and there has therefore been a tendency towards its almost exclusive use wherever it has been available.

The historian, if his work is to be of value, must have full knowledge of the interdependence of these various classes of records, and of the laws and principles that govern their use. The teacher of history, if his work is to be successful, must appreciate the difference between the primary records and the history derived from them and thus not confuse and confound the two either in his own mind or in his classroom work.

II.

THE HISTORIAN IN RELATION TO THE SELECTION AND USE OF MATERIAL.

It has been seen that the historian has at his command a vast amount of material from which to derive his own work. It is, in general, impossible, even in the preparation of a single monograph, to use all of the materal available, and hence the question as to what principles are to be used in making a selection becomes an all-important one. Different methods have at different times prevailed.

In the first stages of writing history, the historian was able, since the field was limited, to collect his own material. The dramatic instinct was strong, while the scientific spirit had not been developed. He therefore used the material that served best this dramatic purpose and concerned himself with the picture he was to present rather than with too close an analysis of the materials of which it was composed. In the selection of these materials, the paramount question was, "Will the result be a vivid picture?"

In the second stage of writing history, the historian had come to perceive that history might serve certain distinct and often personal ends. The invention of printing had focused interest on the printed record and since the critical faculty was still undeveloped, every printed record was accepted at its face value to the neglect of every other form of testimony. Moreover since the end was personal rather than general

the selection of material was governed by the question, "Does this record serve my purpose?"

In the third stage of writing history, an abnormal interest was attached to the discovery of new material. The inadequacy of the printed record had come to be felt and the work of the historian proper was supplemented by that of the historical critic who overthrew the existing printed records but attached a peculiar sanctity to manuscripts, by the archæologist who claimed the entire field for himself and made history proper but a subdivision of Greek pottery and Roman walls, and by the physical historian who explained the battle of Gettysburg by the climatic differences between the Northern and the Southern states, and reduced the results of a presidential election to differences in geological strata. The freshness of the material used came to be of more moment than its authenticity; hence the question of the historian was, "Is this material new?"

In the fourth period the historian has appreciated that he must use both the printed and the manuscript record as well as the record of monuments, but not until each has been subjected to the most searching tests as regards its authenticity and the credibility of the sources on which it is based. Moreover, he realizes that "material monuments take a place, important or unimportant, in the historian's reconstruction of the past according as they can be interpreted well or ill by comparison of the monuments of letters."[1] The first question of the historian of today is, "Is the record true?"

This must be considered, however, only a general statement of the evolution of the attitude of the historian towards his material. Some early historians carefully examined their material on the points of genuineness and truthfulness, while some later historians have used their material to promote political ends. Niebuhr not only subjected the literary evidence used to a critical examination and analysis but he began that use of monumental evidence which was later developed by Böckh and his successors, while Froude, a half century later, has been called, "Indolence in a dozen volumes."[2]

The historian at first used exclusively the written record, but "the proportion between data derived from the ancient historians is continually shifting, and always shifting in one direction (that of existing fact)."[3] That history needs to be constantly rewritten is due among

[1] HOGARTH, p. 14.

[2] *Letters of John Richard Green*, p. 239.

[3] PERCY GARDNER, *New Chapters in Greek History*, p. 20.

other reasons not only to the growing recognition of the importance of monumental evidence but also to the constantly increasing amount of such evidence. Probably we have now in hand all of the most important literary evidence that has been preserved, but every turn of the spade brings to light fresh monumental evidence. When Greek history was written from the literary evidence alone, the Homeric poems were the last monument of historical activities on the confines between the unknown and the known European past. But the archæologist has at a bound put the milestone back a thousand years before the time of these. The paleontologist reconstructs the history of nature from the remains of fossil animal and vegetable life, and his history is imperfect and incomplete if he neglects either one of these two classes of records. The historian reconstructs the story of the human life of the past from all remaining records and he must use not alone the record left by letters, but that which has survived in the pottery, coins, weapons, tools, and every other evidence of a past life.

It must follow, therefore, that the historian whose work is to stand the tests demanded of it must in the selection of his literary material be governed by the principles and laws that have been deduced by critics and that are embodied in the science of historiography,[1] and that in the selection of monumental evidence he must depend on the similar laws that govern this class of materials.[2]

Thus it is seen that new principles governing the selection of material have from time to time been introduced, and that the most important of these have been the increased reliance placed on monumental evidence, and the subjection of both monumental and literary evidence to the most searching criticism. The task of the historian has therefore been increased immeasurably through these three means — the extraordinary development of interest attached to monumental evidence, the growing amount of literary evidence available, and the necessity of testing all evidence by the principles of scientific criticism.

[1] "Historiography . . . . is the sum of the results obtained by the critics who have hitherto studied ancient historical writings, such as annals, memoirs, chronicles, biographies, and so forth." — *Langlois and Seignobos*, p. 51.

[2] No one science as yet deals with the principles that govern all forms of monumental evidence. It is necessary in dealing with such material to study separately the laws of each branch of monumental evidence, as archæology, numismatics, heraldry, and all its other forms.

The task of the historian has thus become one of such overwhelming magnitude that it is impossible for him to perform it single handed and alone. Division of labor, however, makes it possible for him to depend on the archivist for the work of collecting, preserving, and testing the original record of letters; on the archæologist for judgment in regard to the value of the record of ancient monuments; and on the writers of monographs for orderly, systematic arrangement of the materials covering a limited period in time or concerning only a very narrow subject. It is only by availing himself of this principle of division of labor that the historian is able to write any extended history and have it worthy of credence.

But the historian has not only been governed at different times by different principles in the selection of the records on which he must base his work—he has also used both literary and monumental records in such a manner as to produce a literal narration of fact, a dramatic representation of events, a scientific record, a vivid picture of the past, a philosophical discussion, or a symbolic representation.

The literal historian, who has based his work chiefly on the literary records, gives a plain, unadorned chronological survey of the period selected. He may be a mediæval annalist, a Guicciardini, or a modern German historian "who has taken as his life work the history of Germany from 1525 to 1527"—the outcome is in every way the same. The literal historian who writes through monuments has preserved the same spirit in Trajan's column, in the Vendome column, and in the July column in Paris, in the acres of historical paintings at Versailles illustrating the Napoleonic wars, and in the similar ones in Berlin recording the part taken by Prussia in the Franco-Prussian war.[1]

The dramatic historian seizes upon effective incidents and throws them into high relief. The keynote of his work is action, and he concentrates on salient episodes all his force and vigor of description. Carlyle as the type of the dramatic historian finds in literature no less effective a field for his dramatic powers than does St. Gaudens in his memorial bronze in honor of Colonel Robert G. Shaw.

The scientific historian is guided by the principle of absolute accuracy, and is interested in the systematic presentation of facts in

[1] These are not to be regarded so much as primary records as they are histories written in the form of monuments.

their true relations, rather than in the effectiveness of the presentation. Stubbs and von Ranke, as the leaders of this school in England and in Germany, find their counterpart in Franz Hals and the Dutch artist historians, who have given us the corporation pieces that are the pride of Haarlem and The Hague.

The picturesque historian portrays the facts with vivid imagery, and presents a series of moving pictures that succeed each other on his canvas with brilliant and telling effect. What Motley has done for the Dutch Republic has been done by Carpaccio for the great city-republic of Venice in the series of pageant pictures that extol the glories of the civic power.

The philosophical historian deals with the broad bases of facts and with the underlying forces that determine events, rather than with the events themselves. Guizot in his *History of European Civilization*, assumes a knowledge on the part of his readers of the chief events in European history, and then interprets for them these events in the light of cause and effect. Kaulbach, in his great series of historical frescoes in the Berlin Museum, has portrayed on six canvases the history of the world, and in the selection of leading figures and in their relation to each other he has summed up the causes and results of great epochs in the world's history.

The symbolic historian makes use of types, and embodies qualities instead of representing the concrete. Naturally, the literary historian is less dependent on this method of using his material than is the historian who writes through art, but for the historian of present society its use is effective and telling. In his great series of symbolic novels, Turgenieff, as the social historian of modern Russia, has symbolized in his leading characters the spirit of unrest, of helplessness, of hope, of ambition, of dependence, of vagueness, and of unreality that characterize the life of Russia today. His work finds its counterpart in that of the artist historian who brings together on a single canvas, or in a single group, the abstract ideas, the controlling principles, the intangible spirit, that have given life to an epoch. The long struggle of Italy for independence from Austria, that lasted for more than half a century is symbolized in the posture of the four lions at the base of the statue erected in Ravenna in honor of those who gave their lives to win that independence. The irreconcilable differences between the nobility, the clergy, and the third estate are represented in the positions of the representatives of the three orders in the statue at

Grenoble commemorative of the beginnings of the French Revolution.[1] The frescoes of Ambrogio Lorenzetti in the city hall of Siena portrayed nearly six centuries ago in imaginative allegory the results of good and of bad government in city and in town.

It has thus been seen that from time to time the point of view of the historian has shifted — that while his objective point has at one time been that of telling a striking story, at another time it has been that of accomplishing political or personal ends, or again of presenting fresh material, or still again of telling the absolute truth as he has seen it, regardless of the consequences to himself, to his friends, or to his political, literary, or religious associations. It has also been seen that at all times it has been within the option of both the literary and of the monumental historian to combine his materials so as to present either a literal, dramatic, scientific, picturesque, philosophical, or symbolic representation of the past. There is a history of the historian's selection of material, and a history of the manner in which he has set forth this material.

III.

HISTORY OF HISTORY.

It has been seen that the historian has had at different times different objects in view in his selection of material, and that therefore he has himself had a history. This history of the historian may, in a sense, be considered the history of history on its subjective side, or the history of the manner in which the historian has used his material. On its objective side also history has had a history.

History dealt first with biography. It was a natural result of a primitive stage of society that interest should center around the individual. He might be called Jason, Romulus, Odin, or Arthur, but he was concrete, and the early races, having little interest in the abstract conceptions of state, institutions, or society, handed down by tradition the accounts of the events of his real or imaginary life, especially of those public acts so well performed as to merit for the actor the

[1] The posture of the noble expresses contempt for the revolution and all that it signified; the priest with raised hand recognizes, but would avert, the coming disaster; the representative of the third estate, with outstretched hands from which the shackles have fallen, welcomes the future with all of pain or of sorrow that it may bring.

term hero. From these accounts mythology and biography, or the first history, was developed.

In time the individual gathered about himself a court, and the court developed its own life of pleasure and activity. Interest in the individual gradually widened and included all those immediately connected with him. The story might be one of a crusading expedition, or of a tournament at court, or of a contest between neighboring kings, but the scene of action was distinctly larger than before. Out of the biography of an individual the chronicle of a court had been developed.

The age of discovery widened the physical horizon of men, and as a result their activities were correspondingly enlarged. Interest was no longer centered exclusively in court life, for all classes of society shared in the new discoveries and in their results. In time it was realized that people, court, and king are equally parts of the body politic, and as a result the chronicles of court life developed into the history of nations considered as organic wholes.

As long as the interests of a nation were centered in itself, it looked on other nations as military or commercial rivals. But wider acquaintaince brought toleration, and toleration was followed by a desire to learn what the experiences of others had been, and to profit by them. The writing of history came to have a more definite end, and the study of the past became less of a passing diversion and more of a serious effort to learn from others. The study of comparative history has followed that of individual nations.

At every stage in the development of history the horizon has been widened until it now embraces the world. From the quadrant of the circle or biography, interest extended to the hemi-circle or court life, then to the three-quadrants or the nation, until now the circle has been completed in the study of groups of nations, or society as a whole. Interest in the personal achievements of the heroes of an early age was merged in that of the larger groups surrounding them; this in turn developed into one centering about the impersonal institutions of a nation, and from the study of the institutions of one nation has come in its turn the comparative study of the institutions of different nations. The relation between the subject about which interest centers, and which becomes the subject of history, and the form that this history takes may be illustrated by the following simple classification:

Center of Interest.	Subject of History.	Form of History.
Single individuals,	Heroes,	Biography,
Groups of individuals,	Court life,	Annals,
People,	Nation,	History,
Peoples,	Society,	Comparative history.

It has been said that this may be illustrated by the development of the quadrant into the complete circle. With the completion of the circle, however, and the development within it of the history of special subjects, history broke down of its own weight. It was no longer possible to write "universal history," in the sense of writing a history at first hand of all the nations of the world in all their individual activities, and therefore special histories were written. Thus, at the very moment that the circle was complete, the process of disintegration began. Histories came to be called "political histories," "constitutional histories," or "histories of the people." Literature and art, religion and philosophy, science and mathematics, developed their own histories. Political science, economics, international law, all grew up as special subjects within a domain that had previously been called history. If this disintegrating process were to be continued indefinitely and history were thus to be resolved into its original elements, it must follow that when the process was complete history would disappear, and its place would be taken by histories of all the component parts of society. It is perhaps this result that Mr. Herbert Spencer sees when he says, "The only history that is of practical value is what may be called Descriptive Sociology," and that leads others to deny the existence, or at least the importance of history. Some have indeed seen the foreshadowing of this disappearance of history in the rapid rise of histories of the people, histories of the government of people, and other variants from the standard titles.

But while it is true that the point of view of the historian has changed during the process of evolution, and that now one thing and now another has seemed of paramount interest to him, it by no means follows that history has disappeared in the process. The principle of division of labor has been introduced, but division of the task does not annihilate the task itself.

The relation that history sustains to all the various subjects that have formed a part of itself may be illustrated by the comparison of history to the individual man made up of body, mind, and soul. The following simple classification will indicate how this comparison may be made:

Man	Material—Body	Bones	Government	Political science
		Organs	Production	Economics
		Arteries	Commerce	Economics
		Muscles	Manual labor	Economics
		Nerves	Communication	Economics
		Flesh	Masses	Sociology
		Brain	Professions	Literature
		Form and color	Art	Æsthetics
	Immaterial	Mind		Psychology, Philosophy
		Soul		Ethics, Religion

From this classification and comparison it is evident that a study of politics gives the history of the social anatomy, that the study of economics is concerned with the material side of life, that the history of the masses of the people tends to lack form and substance, and the history of form and color emphasizes sentiment rather than strength. Histories of the people were an inevitable reaction from the chronicles of court gossip, but they were themselves open to the same criticism of being only special histories. Histories of art and of literature were inevitable, but they have never been substitutes for history proper. "Politics is the superficial struggle of human ambitions crossed occasionally, but rarely, by a sincere desire to do good. History must take account of politics, as of everything else, but let it remember that politics is in its very nature bold and encroaching, a part of that fierce struggle for power which is so unlovely."[1]

History is not and can never be supplanted by one of the subjects that form part of it. Every organ of the body has its individual organism — the heart has its valves, the lungs their veins, the stomach its muscles — but the study of these does not supplant the study of the organism as a whole. A study of general physiology and anatomy is necessary before one can become a specialist, and the specialist must constantly revert to the general practitioner if he is to keep in mind the relation his own work sustains to that of his fellow specialists. In a similar way it is true that the historian of literature cannot understand his subject without a knowledge of the general historical forces that are behind it and that are working in connection with it. The economist

[1] EDWARD EGGLESTON, *Annual Report of the American Historical Association*, 1900, Vol. I, p. 40.

must reckon with politics; the political scientist with literature; æsthetics with psychology; and philosophy with religion. It has thus become the function of history, not to magnify heroes into demi-gods, not to chronicle the idle gossip of courtiers, not to exalt one country at the expense of another, not to content itself with detached and isolated subjects, not to undertake *de novo* the study of the development of the world from its beginning to the present moment, but rather to utilize the work in other departments of knowledge, to combine these into new wholes, to show relationships, to keep a true perspective, to weld into an organic whole the story of the activities of mankind. It must follow that it is futile to ask, "Which is more profitable, the study of the history of England or that of Italy?" England gives the best illustration of political development, but we must go to Italy for the study of art, and to Germany for the study of philosophy. It is equally futile to ask, "Which is more important, the history of inventions or that of military campaigns?" Inventions, military campaigns, politics, art, and literature all play a part in that complex organism called society, and history must take each into account in its portrayal of human development. The part is not equal to the whole, but the whole is equal to the sum of all the parts. The historian must build the structure while the archivist lays the foundation, the writer of monographs collects the material, and the specialist adds particular features. The historian, like the poet, sees that

> "All nations have their message from on high.
> Each the messiah of some central thought,
> For the fulfillment and delight of Man.
> One has to teach that Labor is divine,
> Another Freedom; and another Mind;
> And all, that God is open-eyed and just,
> The happy center and calm heart of all."

IV.

THE RELATION OF HISTORY TO OTHER SUBJECTS.

History does not occupy an isolated place; it sustains an intimate relationship to every other branch of knowledge. Yet this relationship is by no means the same in every case since it is never either mechanical, arbitrary, or inorganic. What this is may be indicated by the classification of different subjects under the heads of the antecedents of

history, the "satellites" of history, the auxiliary subjects, the allies of history, and the offshoots or descendants of history.

The antecedents of history — geology and anthropology — give a necessary substratum of knowledge on which the historian must build. The historian is not and cannot be either a geologist or an anthropologist, and the time has long since passed when he could seriously be advised to become a master of either subject,[1] but the physical construction of any country is often a key to its history, and so history is indebted to the antecedent sciences for the basal facts on which its own story of the human past is developed.

The "satellites" of history, to borrow Mr. Freeman's term, though not his classification — chronology, statistics, numismatics, sphragistics, heraldry, geneology — have no inherent value, but derive their importance from their connection with history. "They are studies whose results are most precious to the historian, but which, in themselves, apart from their use to the historian, seem not to rise above that kind of curious interest which may be called forth by an inquiry to which a man gives his mind."[2] History relies on the information gained through chronology, statistics, and kindred subjects for exactness, for accuracy, for elucidation of obscure points, yet these subjects have in and of themselves no meaning apart from their connection with history. They derive their importance as branches of knowledge from the light that history throws on them.

The subjects auxiliary to history — archæology, epigraphy, paleography, heuristics, diplomatics, bibliography, philology, and all language studies[3] — are those that may be called the working tools of history. MM. Langlois and Seignobos have indeed pointed out[4] that there are no branches of knowledge that are auxiliary to historical research in general, or that are useful to all students irrespective of the particular part of history on which they are engaged, but the relation that archæology and epigraphy sustain to classical history is the same

[1] "The historian will clearly do his own regular work better for being master of of them (geology and associated sciences)." — FREEMAN, *Methods*, p. 45.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 49.

[3] Bernheim makes a different classification, including in "Hülfswissenschaften" subjects like numismatics that have been classed above among the satellites of history, but it seems necessary to distinguish between those subjects that in and of themselves have a distinct place as helpers in the study of history and those whose chief or only interest depends upon their connection with history.

[4] *Introduction*, pp. 52–53.

as that sustained to mediæval history by paleography and to modern history by the modern languages — it is impossible to understand, to write, to teach history without the help given by one or more of these subjects.

The allies of history — geography, memoirs, biography, literature, art, law — are subjects that have an independent value of their own apart from that derived in the study of history, but subjects that depend for their elucidation quite as much on history as does history on them. History depends on the information contained in memoirs and biographies, but memoirs and biographies are in turn indebted to history for their setting and often for their interpretation. Much of the information in regard to the past has been stored up in literature, but literature cannot be understood without a comprehension of the historical forces that produced it. Art is the interpreter of history as history is the interpreter of art. It is impossible to determine whether law owes more to history or history to law. History is but imperfectly understood without a knowledge of geography, and the converse is equally true.

Finally, there are the offshoots or the descendants of history, as political science, international law, economics, finance, and kindred branches that in the widening of the field of history have been separated from it.

History thus does not occupy an isolated position and the historian, like the dwellers in Arden,

> Finds tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,
> Sermons in stones and good in everything.

If history is thus connected with every other branch of knowledge through the organic relationship that unifies all knowledge — an idea of interdependence emphasized certainly as far back as time of Cicero[1] — if the writer of history must never lose sight of that unity in historical development so insisted upon by Mr. Freeman,[2] it must follow that the teacher of history must in his own work take cognizance of this interdependence of subjects, and must maintain in his teaching the same unity that the historian must preserve in the writing of history.

[1] "In truth, all the arts which concern the civilizing and humanizing of men, have some link which binds them together, and are, as it were, connected by some relationship to one another."—*Poet Archias.*

[2] "The Unity of History," in *Comparative Politics*, and "Inaugural Lecture" in *Methods of Historical Study.*

This does not mean that the teacher of history is to teach all facts lest some of the essential ones escape. One who attempts that plan may well be reminded of the words of John Morley, when he recalls how "the Greek poetess Corinna said to the youthful Pindar, when he had interwoven all the gods and goddesses in the Theban mythology into a single hymn, that we should sow with the hand and not with the sack. Corinna's monition to the singer is proper to the interpreter of historical truth: he should cull with the hand and not sweep in with the scythe."[1] It does not mean that the effort must be made to have the child live over again the experiences of the race. It does not mean that either the one teaching or the one taught is to become master of all the sciences in the curriculum. It does mean that in every way possible history is to be illustrated by every other subject in the curriculum and in its turn is to illustrate them.

How this is to be done it is equally impossible, inadvisable, and unnecessary to state at this time, except briefly through two illustrations drawn from the study of numismatics, and of geography.[2]

The historian has come to recognize the important part that coins play in the illustration and confirmation of history, and that "a minute knowledge of history is at once demanded for and produced by the study of Greek coins."[3] The teacher of history in using the study of coins to illustrate his own work has at his disposal the various authoritative works on numismatics with their accompanying plates, collections of coins in museums, photographs of coins, the series of postal cards illustrating ancient Greek coins, and, best of all, the interest in collecting coins which with the boy is second only to that of collecting postage stamps. It is possible for the teacher, armed with these resources, to show how coins illustrate the development of Greek politics from the early period of the independence of the Greek cities when each city has its own separate coinage,[4] through the period of political alliances when separate coinage was abandoned in favor of that of the alliance[5]

[1] *Critical Miscellanies*, I, 2–3.

[3] PERCY GARDNER, *Greek Coins*, p. 62.

[2] Numismatics is selected as illustrating the group called "satellites" of history, and geography that of the allies of history.

[4] MIONNET notes 1,500 towns that had their own coinage, and scores of others were added after the work was published (1807–37). Coins are extant of more than 750 Greek cities in Sicily, while at least fifteen cities in Acarnania alone had separate coinage. *Ibid.*, pp. 26, 27.

[5] MR. PERCY GARDNER clearly show how it was no light thing for the cities to give up the types and monetary standards they had had and to adopt those of a

to that of the unification of Greece under Alexander and the consequent adoption of a universal Alexandrine coinage. In American history the phrase, "I don't care a continental," still perpetuates the memory of the financial impotence of the Continental Congress.

The military coinage adopted at various times gives important evidence concerning the conduct of military campaigns. The earliest Carthagenian coins were those struck in Sicily to pay the mercenary troops in the invasion of 410 B. C.[1] There was an Anglo-Gallic coinage of the time of the Hundred Years' War, while the Black Prince had coins with detached feathers on the field, commemorating his depluming the helmet of the King of Bohemia.[2] The reign of Charles I. can be exhibited graphically by means of coins. During the time of the Civil War rude pieces were struck off in haste without the necessary coining apparatus, and these are often the monuments of disaster or of triumph; in Oxford silver twenty-shilling pieces were coined from the plate given by the heads of colleges to be melted and coined by the Royalists.[3]

If political and military conditions can be thus strikingly illustrated by means of coins, it must be self-evident that the financial condition can be thus shown. The current expressions, "I don't care a sou — a rap — a soldo," illustrate the minute subdivisions of the monetary unit in the countries where heavy taxation goes hand in hand with poverty of resource. The absence of these small subdivisions and the scarcity of even the smallest of the subdivisions coined, as of cents in California, must indicate the opposite condition.

These few illustrations drawn from numismatics have been suggested to show the use that it is possible to make of that subject in illustrating history. It is impossible for the immature student to reconstruct history through a study of coins, but it is possible for the mature teacher to avail himself of the researches of the trained historical investigator, and thus to elucidate and to vivify to a class many important events in history otherwise difficult of comprehension.

The subject of geography presents many difficulties not only because of its vastness, but also through the indefiniteness of its limits.

league. Coins are extant showing the monetary alliances existing among the cities of the Chalcidian league, of the Archæan league, of the Atolian league, among the cities of southern Italy, in Asia Minor, and among the cities of the Asiatic coast.—*Greek Coins*, pp. 27–31.

[1] HILL, *Greek and Roman Coins*, p. 97. [2] HUMPHREYS, II, 440. [3] HUMPHREYS, I, 5.

The great branches of physical, political, and commercial geography are each sufficiently comprehensive to be considered a subject by itself, yet each is so interwoven with the other that it is impossible to make any division between them. "History is not intelligible without geography,"[1] and this statement from one of the best authorities on the relation between the two subjects must be accepted as covering all the different phases of geography.

The dependence of history upon the physical character of a country is evident when it is seen to what extent these conditions have determined those on which history is based. The beginnings of nations have been influenced by the existence of broad fertile valleys, while very high or very broad mountain chains have, outside of America, decided national frontiers. The necessity for individual protection determined the sites of the hill fortress-towns of ancient Greece and of mediæval Italy, as protection again has led to the choice of sites partly encircled by water, as Durham, Venice, Bern and Constantinople; the necessity for national defense has developed the great modern fortress-towns of Grenoble and Belfort; commercial reasons have placed towns at the junction of two rivers, as Mainz, Coblenz, and Lyons, or near the mouths of rivers, as Philadelphia, New Orleans, and Havre.[2] Trade routes, military operations, terms of treaties have all been conditioned by geographical features.

Geographical nomenclature is in its turn a fruitful field for showing the relation of history and of geography, as is evident in the term "fossil history" that has been applied to it. Great erudition has been required to determine satisfactorily and conclusively the origin of large numbers of European geographical terms, but the problem in America is simpler than it has been in Europe and it is far simpler here today than it will be in the future. It is possible almost to reconstruct the early external history of America through the study of names. The Spaniards have left the traces of their explorations and discoveries in the names of saints and in names significant of the natural features of the country, and these are found all along the seacoast and the water courses of the southwest. The French discoverers in their turn have left along the great lakes and through the valleys of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi the names of French explorers, occasion-

[1] H. B. GEORGE, *History and Geography*, p. 1.

[2] Mr. George has given an entire chapter to the location of towns and I am indebted to him for the illustration of Belfort.

ally of saints, more often those indicative of the physical conditions of the country. The English settlers introduced a new element in nomenclature that had been impossible for the Spanish and the French in view of the great extent of territory explored and consequent lack of permanence, and that was names showing the affection of the settlers for their native English towns — hence the duplication all along the Atlantic coast of the geographical names of England.[1]

After the separation of the colonies from England, dawning Americanism is seen in the names Columbus, Washington, Hamilton, Jefferson, and those of other statesmen and leaders. Later, the same spirit developed Websters, Clays, Grants, and Garfields. American history is thus stratified in its geographical names. The love of native home that led to the conferring of so many names of England on the Atlantic settlements was reproduced when the descendants of these settlers became in turn emigrants to the western country.[2] Adventurers have left their footprints in Fair Chance, Eureka and Oka (softened from O. K.). "Boomers" have left their impression on Paris, London, Mason City, Charles City, and Metropolis City. The hopes and aspirations of the comers are seen in Concord, Liberty, New Era, and Unionville. Vaulting ambition has sprinkled over central New York most of the classical names of Greece and ancient Italy while Sparta appears in Wisconsin and Hannibal in Missouri. A score of additional classifications of American names might be made all showing how history has left its impress on American geography.

If we turn again to Europe, we see how the development in methods of warfare has changed the entire system of the defense of towns. The mediæval city walls, encircling narrow crowded streets whose buildings were prophetic of the tall apartment houses of today, have given place to broad boulevards that are indicative of peace. Evolution in the site of towns has produced successively the Grecian acropolis, the Italian hill castle, the English manufacturing town and the American railroad center.

[1] It is interesting, however, to note that this apparently did not come until after the period reflecting court influence, as is seen in the names Virginia, Maryland, New Jersey. When the actual settlers grew in independence, they gave the names of their home towns.

[2] Jersey Shore, Pa., Salina, Kansas,— the frequent repetition of names like Oswego, Brooklyn, Rochester, all show the influence of inter-state migration, as Penn Yan and Beloit show the results of compromise between settlers from different sections or holding different views.

These are but suggestions of the innumerable ways in which history and geography each supplement and explain the other. The immediate relations between the two subjects are more obvious than is the case with numismatics and history, yet in this very apparent simplicity of relationship there lurks a danger. About no class of facts and conditions is it so easy to generalize from insufficient data as about those relating to geography.[1] The novice who would hesitate to formulate conclusions in regard to the connection between archæology and history, or heraldry and history, does not hesitate to draw sweeping deductions concerning the apparent mutual influence of geography and history. The teacher must be well equipped with a fund of geographical and historical knowledge, rather than familiar only with technical method, if he is to hold in check this too common tendency.

The philosopher has shown the unity of knowledge, the historian has proved the unity of history, the teacher must teach the unity of history and other subjects in the curriculum.

V.

OBJECT OF THE STUDY OF HISTORY.

The question is often asked, What is the object of history? The very ambiguity in the form of the question is a true reflection of the ambiguity in the mind of the questioner in regard to the nature and function of the subject. To accept, however, for the present the question in its vague form, the necessity must be clearly seen of differentiating at the outset the reading of history from the study of history, and the study of history from the writing of history. It is one thing to write history, it is quite another to read history, and still another to study history. Thus the object of the writer of history, of the reader of history, and of the student of history are all diverse and must not be confused.

To the question, What is the object of the historian in writing history? the reply may be made in the words of one who is himself a

[1] One illustration of this is the frequent insistence on the idea that the sea and the mountains are the natural homes of liberty,— a statement repeatedly met with in the older text-books on history. Mr. George advances the ingenious theory that the statement owes its vitality to Wordsworth's sonnet. P. 74.

distinguished historian, "It is not patriotism, nor religion, nor art, but the attainment of truth that is and must be the historian's single aim."[1]

To the question, What is the object of reading history? an answer may be given in the words of Mr. Percy Gardner: "One of the greatest benefits bestowed by the muse of history on her votaries is that she lifts them out of the ordinary dull routine of a monotonous life, and conveys them through bygone scenes and to distant countries; that she enlarges their ideas through the contemplation of states of civilization different from the present; that she widens their charity by laying out before them a vast panorama of forgotten beliefs and endeavours; that she softens their hearts with emotions of pity and admiration for persons who have lived and died; that she helps them to the goal of right action by mapping out the course whereby others have attained that goal."[2]

To the question, What is the object of the study of history? no categorical reply can be given. The object varies according to the varying stages of mental development. The object to be gained by the study of history is one thing with the child, it is something quite different with the high-school boy, and again different with the college student or mature scholar. At every stage of the educational process, the object varies since it must adapt itself to the mental development of the child or student.

Moreover, it must be borne in mind that history, like many other subjects, is in the curriculum for a double object — for the direct information that it gives and for its help in mental training. These two purposes are often confused, and varying reasons are assigned by as many varying persons to whom one side of the question may seem all-important. To one history is of help in political discussion, to another it affords subjects for polite conversation, to another it is studied to promote patriotism; one values it for its moral lessons, another for its opportunity of character study, and a third, for examples to be followed when similar conditions arise; one studies it because it is interesting, another prefers fact to fiction, while another finds it helpful in studying literature and art; one considers it useful in training the memory another in training the judgment, and another in arousing interest, and a fourth in unifying the curriculum.

This confusion of the purpose to be served by the acquisition of historical knowledge and of the disciplinary end to be served in the

[1] F. York Powell in *Langlois and Seignobos*, p. xi. [2] *New Chapters*, p. 23.

study of history is well illustrated by the history of history in the curriculum. Even the most cursory examination of this history will show the different ends that it has served at different times. At first Greek and Roman history was taught in college as an adjunct of the classics and hence the subject had an entirely subsidiary position. At the same time American history was taught in the ungraded schools and in the grammar grades of the graded schools, largely as a result of the belief that "everyone ought to know something about his own country." The object here was apparently to foster patriotism and particularly to magnify the deeds of the Colonists in the war of the Revolution. In seminaries and academies outlines of the world's history were taught, presumably to provide subjects for conversation. The field of history to be studied varied, not according to the mental development of the pupils of a school, but according to the nature of the school. The classical school taught classical history, the public school taught United States history, the boarding school taught so-called universal history.[1] History has now been accorded a more prominent and important place in the curriculum. This has resulted in part from the rapid development of both the school and the college curriculum and the consequent introduction of many new subjects, in part from the study of European systems of education, where history occupies an important position ; in part from the rapid accession of citizens of foreign birth and the belief that their children should acquire at an early age a knowledge of the history and institutions of their adopted country.

But the confusion still remains between history considered objectively and subjectively. If the object of the writer of history must be differentiated from that of the reader of history, it is equally necessary to differentiate the use to be made of historical knowledge, or the subject-matter of history, from history as a study to be made use of in the curriculum as a means of mental education.

It is foreign to the purpose of this paper to discuss the uses of historical knowledge — they are as widely divergent as are the necessities of the individuals appealing to a knowledge of the past for personal or public, private or official reasons. But it is the function of a body of men discussing the scientific aspects of education to ask, "How can history be used in the curriculum as a means of mental education ?"

[1] For a history of the teaching of history in this country, see H. B. ADAMS, *The Study of History*.

To answer the question, it is necessary to ask another — "What are the mental states and processes of the child, the boy, the young man, that must be kept in mind if history is successfully to be made a part of the curriculum?"

The first stage of mental development is the one usually called the imaginative period. It is at least a question whether this period has been correctly named — the world in which the child lives is to himself a very real one and is an imaginative one only from the standpoint of the mature person. But the term is here used in the usually accepted sense. The child, from his own point of view, lives in a real world — from the point of view of others, it is a world of the imagination.

The stage that follows that of the imagination is the one controlled by enthusiasms; it is the period of dreaming dreams and seeing visions, the time of ideals and of widening horizons. The unreal world of the imagination in which the child has lived has developed into a very real one with constantly widening boundaries. He is reaching out into the future, questioning his own relation to his environment, to his unknown future, and to his equally unknown past. His interest in the story of the past is a twofold one — in it he finds conditions and situations that may explain his own, and in it he finds ideals that may guide him in the future. But he is no longer satisfied as when a child with single, detached events and isolated characters. His heroes must also be men of ideals as well as deeds, they must have a large theater for their action, they must sustain a definite relationship to the world in which they lived and be leaders in it. His imagination is fired by the history of their deeds, and his zeal is quickened to imitate them. Honor, courage, enthusiasm on the part of the great men of the past find a responsive chord in the boy.

The third period that follows that of enthusiasms and the earlier one of the imagination may be called that of unification or integration. Imagination and enthusiasms have by no means passed away — rather they remain as the basis on which integration is developed. But the desire for unity, for relationships is developed, and with the accumulation of a multitude of facts comes the desire to find unity among them, to seek for guiding principles, for magnets which shall gather the isolated, unrelated facts about a common center.

The fourth period again gathers into itself the characteristics of the previous periods, but it is now the judgment that becomes the prevailing one. The young man is no longer satisfied with the surface

presentation of the events of the past, but he makes comparisons, finds analogies, seeks for the relations of cause and effect. The critical faculty holds in check the earlier enthusiams, and the events of the past now appeal not so much to his enthusiasm as to his reason and judgment.

The fifth period is not always, perhaps even is seldom, reached by the student during his nominal school life. Indeed it may happen that it is never reached at all by those whose training has been incomplete or abortive. It is the period when the creative spirit is roused and the individual is no longer satisfied with accumulation, but is impelled by forces from within once more to reconstruct some part of the story of the past. He searches for new material, he combines accepted facts into new shapes, he finds himself one in the brotherhood of creators and producers.

What then is the object of the study of history on its educational side? The answer must be that it is to provide material that may aid in developing the faculties dominant at each stage of mental development. A corollary must follow. The material selected and the use made of the material must be adapted to the mental condition of the individual who is to be educated. To force the reconstruction of the past by one who has not yet reached the creative stage is to clothe the child in the garments of the man. To give the mature student a kaleidoscopic picture of the past as a substitute for an orderly sequence of events, the interpretation of which demands the exercise of reason and judgment, is to clothe the man in the garments of the child.

This is a general statement of the problem and its answers. To state the question in detail, the object of the study of history on its educational side is first to train the imagination, to use the phrase in its commonly accepted meaning, during the period that corresponds roughly to the primary grade; it is second, to cultivate enthusiams during the period that corresponds to the grammar grade; it is third, to secure integration of facts and ideas during the high-school period; it is fourth, to train the judgment during the college course; it is fifth, to foster and minister to the creative spirit during the university and subsequent periods. Thus the object on its educational side varies with the age of the boy or young man, and at each stage it adapts itself to the mental equipment found. Imagination never disappears, but it is controlled and regulated, and during the creative period is of the greatest assistance in vivifying the past. The creative

spirit is in embryo form during the period when the imagination holds sway, but it develops with each stage until it becomes the ruling characteristic.

The object may be stated in still more concrete form. It is first to people the world in which the child lives with simple, concrete characters that have to the mind of the child neither time nor place relation. The individual has come within the horizon and interest centers in him. He has no knowledge of the state as an organism, no conception of the institution of the church, no comprehension of abstractions, but what is human and personal appeals to him. His imagination is vivid, but it cannot create, and therefore it can deal only with that of which it has already conceived. It is the human and the personal that appeals to him, and that which is without time relation that attracts. Achilles and Romulus, Odin and Alfred, Charlemagne and Napoleon, Washington and Standish are all fellow countrymen and contemporaries in that large world whose boundaries loom dimly before the vision of the child. The voyage of the Argonauts and the labors of Hercules, the founding of Rome and Horatius at the Bridge, the journey of Hiawatha and the search for an El Dorado are all real events in the shadowy world in which the child lives.

The object in the second stage of historical instruction is to give a time and place relation to these and similar characters and events, to minister to the enthusiasms of the boy by showing each in his true environment, to give him ideals by showing him what has been achieved, to help him reach out after the great world in which achievement and action have played a conspicuous part, to encourage the accumulation of large stores of information in regard to these heroes.

The object in the third period is to give unifying principles and thus it corresponds to the work of the artist in "composing" a picture.[1] It is to enable the boy to see not only unity in historical development but unity in all that he has to deal with — that mathematics and music are first cousins, that art and philosophy are related, and that the study of Sanskrit roots has made the world akin. Imagination and enthusiasm still have a place, but more emphasis must be

[1] "The law of help is the fundamental law of composition because it is the law of organic relationship throughout the universe." — CHARLES H. MOORE, *Atlantic Monthly*, October, 1900.

Composition is "the help of everything in the picture by everything else." — JOHN RUSKIN, *Modern Painters*, p. 174.

put on the arrangement, classification, and relationship of facts. Xenophon in describing the approach of the hostile army says: "It was now the middle of the day and no enemy was yet to be seen; but in the afternoon there appeared a dust like a white cloud, which not long after spread itself like a darkness over the plain. When they drew nearer the brazen armor flashed and their ranks appeared."[1] Then the historian narrates how one by one the different divisions of the army came distinctly into view. Thus the mass of facts accumulated in the first years of the child's study take form and shape, and at the close of the boy's high-school course he should have, as the result of the work of accumulating, classifying, and seeing the relationship of facts, a clear and definite impression of the progress of historical events, not only in his own country, but more especially in the larger world of which his native land forms but a part. Still more, he should have had an introduction to the idea that knowledge is singular in fact as well as in form. He must see not only the relationships between the different parts of the story of the past, but he must have an appreciation of the relationship between history and literature, both classic and modern, of the community of aim between work in history and work in geography, and that politics and history are but different faces of the same shield. He must realize that every study in the school curriculum dovetails into every other study making from seemingly isolated parts a compact, organic whole.

The fourth period has for its object training in the selection and use of material, in the collation of the material gathered, and in the correct interpretation of it. This period in its turn holds in solution the characteristics of those that have preceded it—"the years that bring the philosophic mind will not bring, they must find, enthusiasm," says Birrell, but the critical attitude of mind is asserting itself, "how" and "why" are the insistent questions, reason and judgment have gained supremacy. "The faculty to be trained is the judgment," says Bishop Stubbs in his inaugural address as regius professor of modern history at Oxford University. "What we want to see is men applying to history and politics the same spirit in which wise men act in their discipline of themselves."[2] After seventeen years of experience in the professional chair he again repeats, "I still think that the aim of historical teaching is the training of the judgment to be exercised in the moral, social, and political work of life."[3] It must follow that the

[1] *Anabasis*, I, 8. [2] *Lectures*, pp. 17, 20. [3] *Ibid.*, p. 373.

young man is no longer contented with chronicles of past adventures and of court life, but his reason demands food, the larger problems of society and of institutions absorb his interests, and college courses must satisfy these interests.

In the fifth period the student enters into his inheritance and joins the goodly company of those who through investigation and production are attempting to advance the boundaries of knowledge. The creative power is the last faculty of the mind to be developed, indeed it sometimes lies dormant throughout life, but the germs of that desire "to make something" that are so evident in the child in his relation to material things manifest themselves very early in an intellectual way. The boy produces nothing of intrinsic value, as the child with a few tools and unskilled in their use produces nothing valuable in a material way, but in both cases there must be the same attempts, although both may be equally futile. This creative spirit is, however, largely held in check during the years when the boy, with insatiable desire for stories of adventure, with a capacity for hero worship that demands objects for admiration, with a groping after an intellectual protoplasm that shall give life to dead facts, with developing judgment that carefully balances the pros and cons of every question — has been traversing the road from primary school to university. But with the entrance on a university career the young man breaks aloof from past leaders and tries his own strength. The creative spirit has the mastery and by its exercise the sum total of human knowledge is enlarged.

What then is the object of the study of history? It is to train the mind through a recognition on the part of the teachers of history of the various stages of mental development, of the characteristic features of each development and of the necessity of adapting the material used to those varying developments. The starting point is the child with the same mental endowment he has in later life; the objective point is the mature student fully equipped for mature research, original investigation, and philosophical conclusions. In the child and in the mature student the power of accumulation and the creative power are in inverse relation to each other. In the child the power of accumulation is strongest, the creative power weakest; he stores up the material collected for him, but he adds nothing to the sum total of historical knowledge. The mature student has not lost the desire for the acquisition of facts, for facts must be the foundation on which he builds, but by the discovery of new sources and by new combinations of well-

known facts he no longer merely absorbs what has been collected, but he makes a permanent contribution to historical science.

It must follow that the teacher of history, whether the teacher in an elementary school or a university professor must take into account the mental equipment of those with whom he deals, and adapt his material and the methods of handling it to the conditions found.

VI.

SELECTION OF MATERIAL.

The attempt has been made to show that the objective point in the teaching of history varies according to the mental development of the pupil. It must follow that the principles adopted in the selection of material must conform to the same general plan. "Advanced work in history does not consist in studying larger books and more of them"; there must be a progressive development in the selection of material, and this selection must be made with reference to the mental condition of the one who uses it.

If this is conceded, the first question is, What should be the introduction of the child to the unknown past?

It has been found that the child lives in a world where the imagination holds sway — a very real world to him, but one peopled with fairies and hobgoblins, without time or place relations, where he lives somewhat apart from the everyday life by which he is surrounded. His mind craves stories, and stories of events having the characteristics of the unreal world in which he himself lives. It is thus the universal myths that appeal to him — the voyage of the Argonauts, the labors of Hercules, the siege of Troy, the wanderings of Ulysses, the founding of Rome, the journeys of Æneas, Arthur and the knights of the Round Table, Odin and the heroes of the North, and the story of Hiawatha — in all of these universal myths he finds friends and familiar scenes. The world of story is the world of his own dreams, and he is here at home with companions amid friendly scenes. While his introduction to the past must be through the suggestion of interests lying outside of himself, it must yet be through those diverging not too widely from them. That which is remote appeals most strongly to the imagination of the child; types rather than species arouse his interest. It is therefore the superhuman that at first appeals to him. It was not

without a deep basis of truth that the Greeks represented their heroes as of superhuman size. The converse of the same idea was afterward embodied in the saying, "A prophet is not without honor save in his own country," and again, in the more modern form, "No man is a hero to his valet." Rosenkranz rightly says that the best literature for children, from their seventh to their fourteenth year, "consists always of that which is honored by nations and the world at large." It was with this thought that Fénelon wrote his *Dialogues of the Dead*, and that Rousseau urged that the child's first book should be *Robinson Crusoe*. Thus Homer and Virgil, *Don Quixote* and *Gulliver*, *Robinson Crusoe*, and the *Arabian Nights* never grow old since they are the reproductions of the types universally recognized.

The material to be selected therefore for the first work in history during the period when the child's imagination is his predominant mental characteristic, or, to express it more truly, while the child is still in an experimental period, is from the realm of mythology rather than from history proper. It must come from the borderland between history, mythology, and literature. It represents not the world of today, but that world known to the early races either definitely or through vague tradition. It is the mythology of Greece and Rome with that of the nations only dimly known to them. But fragmentary and vague as is the early mythology, it is possible through it to give a fairly complete survey of the world's traditions. The child is unconscious that through these mythological tales he has thus become acquainted, in an imperfect way it is true, but still acquainted, with the traditional heroes of the early period, but he has stored up legends in regard to the early nations that in time will have for him a concrete existence. He has been given in a simple way an outline of the world's mythology. The following circle will show one way in which these mythological tales may be selected with this end in view.

But the child soon passes from the world of myths to the world of realities, and he demands "true stories." These stories, however, must be stories of what has come within his mental horizon. Interest for him as yet centers in the individual—he has no comprehension of the abstract conception of state, society or church, but he demands stories of individuals, and primarily stories of heroes. It is, however, the physical side of life, as regards nature and man, that appeals to him. It is thus physical rather than moral heroism that attracts him. If he draws any conclusion from the stories he hears, it is that wrong

is redressed and right maintained by physical prowess rather than by moral qualities. The heroes that appeal to his imagination and his growing enthusiasm are at first again those that represent universal types, but they must be "real" heroes. Achilles and Hector, Jason and Romulus, Odin and Arthur yield the place of interest to Lycurgus and Miltiades, Hannibal and the Gracchi, Alaric and Charlemagne, Alfred and William, Washington and Franklin. Yet these at first

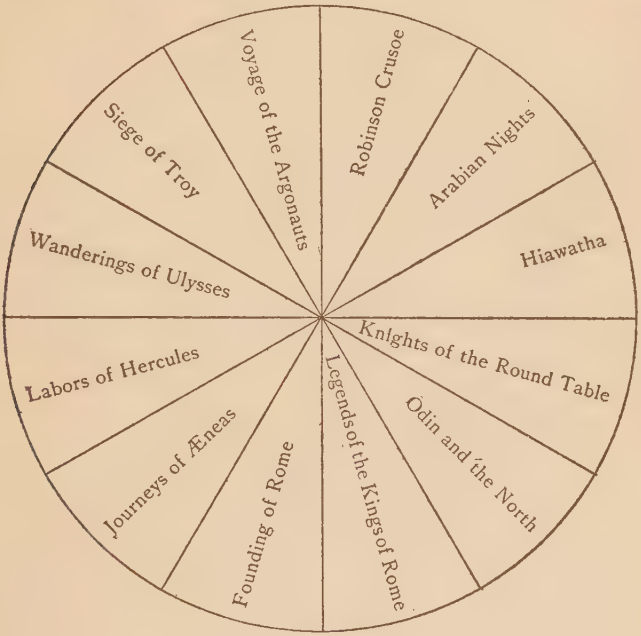

FIG. 1.—MYTHOLOGY.

again have for the boy neither time nor place relation. They are types that belong to every age and to every nation, and thus they are the heroes of every child. All these and other heroes might exchange age, locality, and nationality, and yet they would represent the same general characteristics as before and appeal to the same love of heroes and heroism. They are types that belong to every age and to every nation, and therefore they are the personal friends of every child. Whether the hero belongs to one country or another does not concern him—the whole world of heroes is his by right of

eminent domain. Here again, as in the mythological tales, the horizon is widened, and it is possible to present a complete survey of the world's history in the form of biographical stories since the boy is interested in the great deeds, not only of the men of his own land, but of other countries as well.

The result of this selection of material may be illustrated by the following circle:

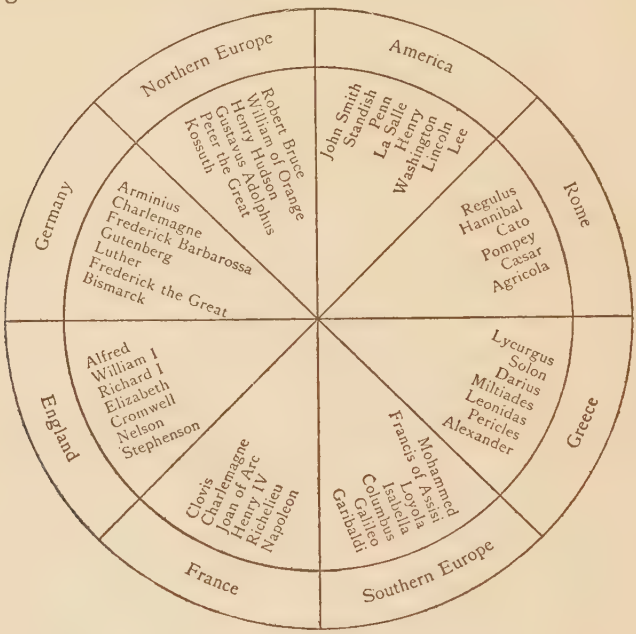

FIG. 2. BIOGRAPHY.

The first object is thus to minister to the imagination of the child and to awaken his dormant enthusiasm by placing before him individual characters representing general or national types. Through the selection of mythological and biographical material to accomplish this end, the boy has been given in an easy simple way a cross-cut section of the world's history. The circumference of his circle — a small one, but still a circle — is complete.

If the first principle to be followed in the selection of material is to make such a choice as will develop and train the imagination through the presentation of vivid pictures of the past, the second must be

to minister to the enthusiasm of the boy by providing a theater in which his heroes may play their parts — it is to present a general outline of historical events in which the lives of the individuals who have come within his knowledge may find their proper place. But in passing to the next larger circle the boy reassures himself in regard to what is familiar and goes from that by an easy transition to what is unknown. Thus the child who ascends a hill overlooking his native

FIG. 3. FIRST CIRCLE OF HISTORY.

village asks first, "Where is our house? Where is grandfather's house?" When these familiar places have been found, he takes an interest in this broader aspect of the view. Enthusiasm is the dominant characteristic of the boy, but with all this enthusiasm he is seeking a setting for the fragmentary and incomplete picture given. His mind is groping for some unifying principle, for a complete whole to be constructed from and for the separate parts of history already known. The second step must therefore be to pass from the narrow circle of which the individual was the center to the larger one in which the

individual becomes the representative of interests broader than his own. Sometimes these broader interests represent families, sometimes cities, sometimes localities. Solon and Miltiades stand for Athens, Lycurgus and Leonidas for Sparta, Romulus is a patrician, Virginia a plebeian, and the Gracchi represent the powerful family of Scipios. Charlemagne is the founder of the Carlovingians, William of Normandy a leader among the feudal barons. Columbus means Spain, and Captain John Smith is Virginia. This first general survey of history proper and the way it has been developed from the earlier circle of biography may be illustrated by circle on preceding page.

It is thus seen that the introduction to history comes through mythological tales and biographical stories that arouse the interest of the child, since the imagination is his controlling mental characteristic, and that through these he is given a picture of the past that includes within itself a fragmentary survey of the world's history. It has also been seen that enthusiasm is being roused and that in the second period this finds its proper field in the setting given the tales and the heroes of the first period through the outline given of the great events in the history of the world.

What then is the third step in the development of the boy's historical knowledge? It is to enlarge once more the circle and to place national interests above those of individuals or of cities and localities. The interests of Athens and Sparta are merged in those of the larger Greece represented by Demosthenes and Alexander. Pompey and Cæsar and Augustus are the representatives of a great power that controlled the world. Charlemagne is no longer merely a splendid chieftain, but he becomes the founder of a great empire. William of Normandy is not simply a feudal baron but he is the head of a great kingdom. Charles V. stands for the sovereignty exercised not only in Europe but claimed in the New World. Washington is a leader in the Revolution but far more than that — he is the founder of a new nation. Garibaldi is not alone a knight errant but he is an active agent in bringing about the great work of the unification of Italy. The circumference of the circle has again been enlarged and the boy has now a fairly well connected idea of the development of the world's history. His circle broadens until a fourth circumference has been reached. What this might naturally include is illustrated by the circle on opposite page.

But the desire for unity gives place in mental development to a

period when the mind seeks relationships, demands to know more of cause and effect, makes comparisons, and draws conclusions. As in each of the three previous periods of mental development, the object here is to provide material for the exercise of these characteristic qualities. Two complete surveys of the great events in the world's history have been made, indeed, three if the introductory circle of mythology and biography be considered one, a large amount of historical information

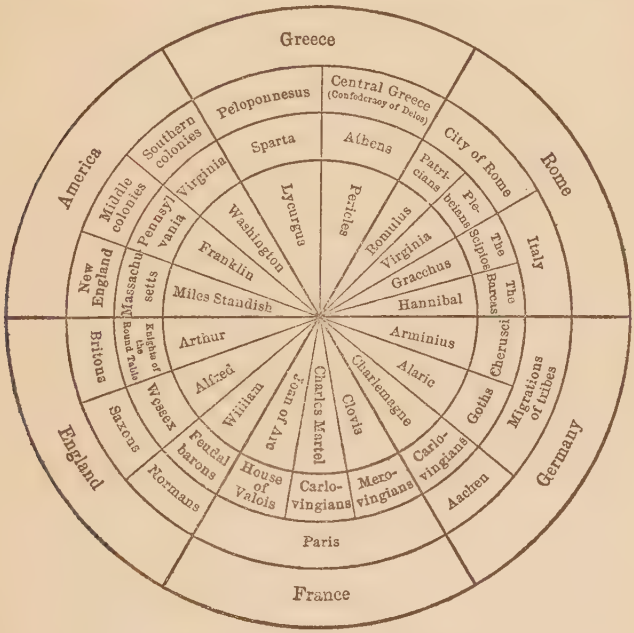

FIG. 4. SECOND CIRCLE OF HISTORY.

has been accumulated, and on this as a foundation special studies may well be made of limited periods where these relationships and comparisons may be more thoroughly studied. The judgment whose exercise has up to this time been largely held in suspense, now finds scope for its action and the college student, with a broad foundation of fact, with historical perspective, is in a position to make with interest, enthusiasm, and advantage a detailed study of these special periods that appeal to him.

The university student, who has become the trained investigator,

preëmpts his own field and reaps the reward of independent research.

The relations sustained between the mental characteristics of the boy, the object to be kept in view in training and developing these characteristics, and the material to be used in this development may be illustrated by the following table:

RELATION OF OBJECT AND MATERIAL.

Age.	Grade.	Predominant Mental Trait.	Object.	Material.
6 7 8 9	Primary. I. II. III. IV.	Imagination.	To give vivid pictures.	Mythology, biography.
10 11 12 13	Grammar. V. VI. VII. VIII.	Enthusiasm.	To give ideals.	First circle of history.
14 15 16 17	High School. IX. X. XI. XII.	Integration.	To give unifying principles.	Second circle of history.
18 19 20 21	College. Freshman. Sophomore. Junior. Senior.	Judgment.	To study cause and effect.	Special periods.
22 +	University.	Creation.	To make some permanent contribution to historical knowledge.	Individual choice.

The principle at the basis of this arrangement of material and of its adaptation to the different grades of instruction is that of dividing the subject-matter of history into three or possibly four concentric circles. This division is based on the idea that the mental development of the child demands at different stages of its growth different

material with which to work, and that this material and this growth should be mutually related to each other. It involves going over practically the same ground several times, though in different ways. But this is of the same advantage to the pupil that it is to the instructor. The teacher gains new points of view with every repetition of a subject, and the pupil must do the same. Professor Henry S. Frieze, whose memory is cherished by all who came under his influence, once told his class reading Quintilian that it was the thirtieth time that he had read the author, but that he had found new beauties with each reading. The boy who takes history in "drei concentrische Kreise" is gaining breadth of view and maturity, the subject is ripening in his mind, he is assimilating it and making it a part of himself, he is seeing in it new beauties and gaining new inspiration from it. He is in a sense going over the same ground each time, but he is ascending a spiral from the apex of which he gains a wider vision than he could have in any other way.

The principle of arrangement of material by concentric circles has been as yet but imperfectly carried out in this country, but it has elsewhere proved a feasible and successful method, and it presents an ideal toward which it is possible to work.

VII.

THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

A careful observer of the changes that have taken place in the manner of teaching history within the past twenty-five years is able to distinguish three stages through which it has passed, or indeed in some localities is apparently still passing. The characteristic feature of the early stage may be indicated by three illustrations. In one of our great universities less than twenty years ago the expression was current among the students that English history was divided into periods of thirteen pages each. It is on record that one of the professors of Harvard University states that his first class-room exercise in history was prefaced by the kindly remark of the instructor: "The fleet of the Lacedemonians was now equal to that of the Athenians; proceed, sir." In 1893 eighty-two schools in New Haven county, Conn., were asked in regard to history instruction: "Is the memoriter method used?" Thirty-seven schools answered "Yes," six answered "In part," while

a teacher in a neighboring county apologetically explained that "he was not particular about the words of the text if the pupil gave words as good." In 1883 Professor, now President, G. Stanley Hall, stated that he was convinced that no subject so widely taught was, on the whole, taught so poorly as was history,[1] and the truth of his statement was borne out by the illustrations given by others writing at the same time.[2]

During this earliest and longest stage the text-book was taught as infallible and the chief educational purpose served by the teaching of history was that of training the verbal memory.

It was inevitable that earnest students and teachers should seek relief from this mechanical, artificial conception of history, and it was equally inevitable that when the reaction came it should be a violent one and in obedience to the physical law that action is equal to reaction. It is, therefore, not strange to find that during the following period high-school pupils were studying the science of history, that source books supplemented text-books, libraries became laboratories, and teachers of history developed into historical Cuviers endowed with the power of reconstructing the story of the past from the fragments of a song and the scattered remnants of an antique vase. Since the text-book was cast aside, the training of the verbal memory gave place to the training of the judgment as an educational object, with the inevitable result that demands were made on the immature minds of boys and girls that could not be met, and what should have been an educational process became a hothouse, forcing process.

A third period in the teaching of history has apparently been entered on. It is one characterized by three controlling ideas — that the text-book is indispensable in the teaching of history when used as a servant and not as a master; that history cannot be reconstructed in the class-room through the use of the sources by immature students or even by expert teachers; that an intelligent, well-trained teacher with a knowledge of history, with an enthusiastic love for it, with the truly historic mind which Frederick Harrison says "is the mind of profound sympathy with the great deeds and passionate hopes of men in the Past,"

[1] *Methods of Teaching History*, p. vii.

[2] "I have heard of a person, by courtesy called a teacher, who habitually kept his finger upon a line in the text-book before him, and limited his instruction to the work of correcting the trifling variations of the pupil from the phraseology of the text."— C. K. Adams, *ibid.*, p. 177.

and with a clear idea of what he is attempting to accomplish through the instruction he gives — that such a teacher is infinitely more potent in achieving successful results than is any method, however admirable in itself, without the master hand behind it.

These changes that have been going on in the class room are but the reflections of the somewhat similar ones through which the writing of history has passed. The latter have been already indicated, and they show that in every period the teacher of history has followed, though at a somewhat slower pace, in the footsteps of the investigator and writer. Every change in the method of writing history and in the conception of what its objective point should be is accompanied or followed by a parallel and corresponding change in the methods of teaching it. Every step in advance made by one necessitates a similar change on the part of the other. The historian who slavishly followed the printed record without inquiring into its credibility and used it to write a history glorifying his own political and military heroes and correspondingly villifying his enemies, has his counterpart in the teacher who follows the text with his finger while conducting a recitation. The historian who throws aside the printed record and reconstructs a history exclusively from folk-songs, from architectural remains, from coins, statuary, and heraldic emblems, finds his counterpart in the professor who a few years since proclaimed in the annual catalogue of a large and important university that no text-book in history was used, but that one was being prepared by the professor and advanced students in the historical laboratory of the university. The historian who intelligently and critically makes use of every source of information at his command and then tells the truth as he sees it, is the forerunner of the intelligent teacher who bases his work on a good text-book and supplements it by constant use of illustrative material drawn from literary and monumental sources.

It may thus be said that the writing of history and the teaching of history have experienced similar changes as regards the object in view and the method of attaining it, that with both the first stage of experience may be described as one where the centripetal force of printed record and of text-book kept historian and teacher in subjection; that during the second stage the centrifugal force of historical skepticism and of educational protest tended to drive both historian and teacher to the opposite extreme: that during the third period the approximate balancing of the two opposing tendencies has enabled both historian

and teacher to approach more nearly the perfect circle where criticism does not mean skepticism and where text-book and source find their proper equilibrium.

So much progress has indeed been made in the teaching of history that it may perhaps be felt that the battle for effective, successful work has already been won. But partial success means only the necessity of still more careful inquiry into the reasons why success has been partial rather than complete. It is thus necessary to ask, What are the defects frequently found in the present condition of history-teaching?

A most serious one is often the lack of a knowledge of history on the part of those expected to teach it. That a teacher should have some acquaintance with the subject he is to teach would seem to be axiomatic, yet the numberless cases on record where presumably this is not the case shows that this fundamental principle has not as yet been accepted either by the employers of teachers or by the teachers themselves.[1]

A companion defect is the belief that some special method can be devised that will serve as a northwest passage to success in teaching history. This idea is fostered by nearly all the text-books of history in the market. Sometimes these are accompanied by manuals of instruction in the use of the text-book; often they contain chapters entitled "Suggestions to Teachers;" in several every chapter is followed by a list of questions to be used by the teacher and by lists of topics for special reports; others give minute instructions to the teachers concerning the preparation by a class of digests, abstracts, fluents, perspectives, and note-books; still others are accompanied by marginal outlines, numbered paragraphs, headings in heavy type, and a bewilderment of paraphernalia for substituting the knowledge of history possessed by the author for a knowledge presumably desired but obviously not enjoyed by the teacher. One text-book goes so far as to say that its distinguishing characteristic "is its capability of helping even the untrained teacher to do work according to the best methods." It must be evident that all so-called "suggestions to teachers" are but crutches by which incompetent teachers are enabled to hobble along

[1] The one class in history in a large school is taught by the teacher of gymnastics. In another important school the single class in history is assigned to a science teacher. In a high school having 1500 pupils the college preparatory history is in charge of a teacher whose entire preparation for it as regards work in history was one three-hour course running through a year. The above list can be added to indefinitely.

and the use of which keeps them perpetually crippled. All such devices work an incalculable injury to the teaching of history and but postpone rather than hasten the time when the subject will rank with others now successfully taught. As long as text-books are arranged for weaklings, just so long will weaklings persuade themselves that a correct method of teaching can be substituted for a knowledge of the subject to be taught.

An equally serious defect is the frequent failure on the part of teachers to see clearly the end in view and to adapt the means to the end. This is particularly noteworthy in that part of history teaching where an elementary knowledge of psychology could reasonably be assumed. How much this ignorance is to be deplored can be realized from a partial enumeration of some of the most frequent errors made as the result of it. The imagination is repressed through undue insistence in the first years of the child on technical accuracy of detail, with the result that in later years the boy has lost all power of vivifying the past, and that history has become a dull, deadening record of events all alike, to him, unimportant and uninteresting. Enthusiasm is quenched by premature insistence on the critical attitude, and by the presentation to children of so-called "true" pictures of those whom the world has revered as its heroes — pictures that present, however, not so much the truth as distorted and magnified versions of blemishes the world has gladly forgiven and forgotten for the sake of a great work accomplished and a noble life lived. At a time when the boy should be interested in synthesis, when he should be seeing the unity, not only between the parts of history, but between history and his other studies, he is taught to put the record of the past on a dissecting table, with the inevitable result that, by a process of analysis and dissection, all vital interest in a living past is crushed out. The judgment is prematurely forced, and demands made on it that cannot be met by the immature mind of the boy. The result is overconfidence in the wisdom of his own conclusions, a readiness to generalize from one particular, or from no particulars at all, and a warped, distorted conception of both past and present.[1] The creative

[1] Illustrations of this particular danger are numerous in the question set for entrance to college, *e. g.*, "The effects of Alexander's conquests on civilization," "Give your estimate of Athenian democracy," "What is the philosophic basis of asceticism?" "Do you regard further annexation of territory to the United States desirable?" etc.

faculty is unduly stimulated, and boys are encouraged to attempt so-called "original" work at a time when their minds are naturally seeking to combine into an organic whole the facts already amassed, and when they are alert and anxious to increase their stores. The natural order is inverted, and special periods are studied before the boy has sufficient knowledge of the great events and developments in the world's history to profit by such study. He enlarges his knowledge by increasing the radius of a segment, not by developing the segment into a circle. His point of view remains stationary, and he lacks historical perspective. Thus the teacher of history, through a failure to apply to his work the simple fundamental laws of psychology, has no reasonable appreciation of the end he is to seek or of the means of reaching that end.

A fourth serious defect is the confusion of the object of the teacher of history with that of the writer of history. It is the function of the historian to collect historical material from every source, to classify and collate this material, and finally to interpret it. The teacher, on the other hand, must accept in his teaching the results of the investigations of historians. He must, indeed, be himself a creator, at least in an elementary way, if his teaching is to have vitality, but it does not follow that he must teach in the class room the results of his own investigations regardless of their appropriateness to the work of the class, or that he must force creation on the part of his pupils. In his relations with his class, it is rather the function of the teacher to act as a "middleman" between the historian and the pupil, to take the results of the historian's work and to elucidate them to the class, to see that the pupils are well grounded in the fundamentals that have been agreed on by the consensus of historical scholars before undertaking, with a class below college grade, the work either of criticism, of investigation, or of reconstruction. The teacher does indeed often deal with the same material as does the historian, but he uses it, not for the purpose of construction, but for that of elucidation. Until his pupils have acquired maturity of judgment, he must in his teaching accept at their face value the results of the investigations of the historian.

Still another danger in the teaching of history assumes the form of a desire to make history the vehicle for our philosophical conceptions of the past, present, and future. This desire to know and to teach the philosophy of history is a reaction against that spirit which

saw in the events of the past only an enumeration of facts, a skeleton without flesh and blood. This reaction has been inevitable, and in a sense is not to be regretted; but it has brought its own attending dangers. For the type of mind that has first grasped the idea that it is not all of history to teach Barnes's text-books memoriter from cover to cover, the transition is easy to the Hegelian conception that in Greece the mind was introspective; among the Romans the mind was resolved into generality, which makes mind itself universal; while in Christianity the mind first withdraws into pure introspection in communion with the universal; then follows the reconciliation, which is the introspective mind transforming the world (Diesterweg's summary). A disciple of this school, whose sublime indifference to the fact that the Norman Conquest came in the eleventh rather than in the first or the nineteenth century, had been the despair of his instructor, when asked what material he would select for a class in history in the grammar grades, replied promptly, "I would teach them the philosophy of history." It is this spirit that teaches in our high schools the philosophical, psychological, and physiological aspects of the French Revolution, that discusses history, as has been said of Mr. Carlyle's *Frederick the Great*, "in the past potential subjunctive," and all this without any sound, accurate knowledge of the facts on which the conclusions of others have been based.

Yet one more defect may be enumerated, and that is the one that comes from the adaptation of the old saying into "whatever is new, is right." This, again, is a reaction against certain misconceptions of the subject-matter of history. Since Mr. Green wrote his *Short History of the English People*, in protest against the previous exclusive consideration of military and political affairs, it has become the fashion to decry every history that does not treat of "the people." The protest has been well made; but there is danger that the teacher who welcomes emancipation from the drudgery that compelled the memorization of all the campaigns of the Revolutionary War will forget that

> "Civlyzation doos git forrid
> Sometimes upon a powder cart."

There is a temptation to overlook the fact that we are conscious of our political constitution, as our physical body, only when it is out of order, and that the study of preventive politics, like preventive medicine, has a proper place. The fault of all early writers and teachers of

history was not in the consideration, but in the exclusive consideration of military and political affairs. He errs in like degree who teaches that these phases of a nation's life can be ignored. He is wise who sees them in their proper relation to other phenomena of society.

If these, and other defects not enumerated, are to be eliminated from the instruction at present given in history, it can only be through such coöperation of all interested in the subject as will result in the contribution by each of the results of his own theories, knowledge, observation, and experience.

VIII.

HISTORY IN THE PROGRAM.

The fullness with which the principles underlying the selection of material have been elaborated in the previous chapters makes it unnecessary to go into great detail in suggesting an outline of the work to be recommended in history. It is, indeed, far more important to agree upon fundamentals than upon details, since the latter must be adapted more or less to individual tastes, interests, surroundings[1] and necessities. The following scheme of work, however, is suggested in the belief that it can be justified not only by appeal to educational experience, but that it can also be defended as practical inasmuch as it is in principle already carried out either wholly or in part in many schools, both in this country and in Europe.[2]

Grades I and II.—Stories from the *Iliad*, the *Odyssey*, the *Æneid*, the *Sagas*, the *Nibelungen Lied*, stories of King Arthur, Odin, Hiawatha; *Robinson Crusoe, Arabian Nights.*

Grades III and IV.—Biographies of characters prominent in history: *Greece:* Lycurgus, Solon, Darius, Miltiades, Leonidas, Pericles, Socrates, Alexander, Demosthenes, Plutarch; *Rome:* Romulus, Virginia, Horatius, Cincinnatus, Regulus, Hannibal, Cato, Pompey, Cæsar, Agricola; *Germany:* Arminius, Alaric, Charlemagne, Henry

[1] One illustration of this may be seen in the study of American colonial history. It is obviously of interest in the Hudson river valley to study with some care the survivals of the Dutch occupation of that valley, as it is of equal interest in Louisiana to study the survivals there of French occupation. The underlying principle in each case is the same, but the exchange of details would lessen the interest on the part of those studying them.

[2] A part of this plan, with some variations, has already been published in the *Report of the Committee of Seven.*

IV., Frederick Barbarossa, Gutenberg, Charles V., Luther, Frederick the Great, Bismarck; *France:* Clovis, Charlemagne, Louis IX., Joan of Arc, Bayard, Palissy, Francis I., Henry IV., Richelieu, Napoleon; *England:* Alfred, William I., Richard I., Warwick, Elizabeth, Sidney, Raleigh, Cromwell, Pitt, Clive, Nelson, Stephenson, Gladstone; *Southern Europe:* Mohammed, Francis of Assisi, Loyola, Prince Henry, Isabella, Columbus, Lorenzo de Medici, Michel Angelo, Galileo, Garibaldi; *Northern Europe:* Robert Bruce, William of Orange, Henry Hudson, Gustavus Adolphus, Rembrandt, Peter the Great, Kossuth; *America:* John Smith, Miles Standish, William Penn, La Salle, Patrick Henry, Franklin, Washington, Daniel Boone, Lincoln, Robert Lee.

These names are suggested, not as a final selection to be rigorously adopted, but as indicating one way of arousing interest and of conveying historical information at the age when ideas of time and place relations are only imperfectly developed, but when interest in individuals is keen and active. The list may be changed *in toto*, but the principle still be retained.

The plan suggested for the first four grades implies that the object is to foster interest in the past and to stimulate the imagination by presenting vivid pictures of the early heroes of the world, that the method used is to be wholly the oral one,[1] that the stories are to be united with lessons given in language and in geography, that the selection of myths and stories should aim to give universal rather than particular notions, and that the teacher should have a sufficient acquaintance with history and literature to be able to decide wisely concerning the selection to be made.

Grade V.—Ancient history to 800 A. D. Simple narrative accounts and studies of the picturesque features of life in the valley of the Nile and that of the Tigris and Euphrates, with some account of the conquering expeditions of the Persians; the story of the invasions of Greece by Persia and of the relations of the great heroes of Greece to their own cities; the expeditions of Alexander and the absorption of Greece in Rome; the founding of Rome and its absorption of the Italian peninsula; the Punic wars and the republic under Julius Cæsar; Augustus and the Empire; Constantine and Christianity; the Germanic invasions; the rise of Mohammedanism; the work of Charlemagne.

[1] It is unfortunate that in the training of teachers greater attention should not be given to the art of story-telling.

Grade VI.— Mediæval history. The beginnings of Germany, France, Italy, and England; the Norman Conquest; Henry IV. and Hildebrand; the mediæval castle and pictures of life within and without; the Crusades; the Hundred Years' War; Constantinople and the Turks; inventions and discoveries.

Grade VII.— Modern history to the present time. Charles V. and his connection with Spain, Germany, and the Reformation; England under Henry VIII. and Elizabeth; Francis I., Charles IX. and the civil wars in France; Philip II. and the Dutch revolt; the Civil War in England; Cromwell and the Commonwealth; Louis XIV. and the struggle with Holland; the French Revolution; the American Revolution; the revolutions of 1830 and 1848; the German Empire, the French Republic, the Kingdom of Italy; England of today.

Grade VIII.— American history. The main outlines of American history.

The object to be sought in this first complete survey of the chief events in the history of Europe and of America is to afford material for stimulating the enthusiasms of the boy. If, to a certain extent, military operations occupy a place in the foreground, it is because it is physical, rather than moral, heroism that first appeals to him, that his first heroes have more often than otherwise been military heroes, and that in his first complete survey of the world's history he seeks a background for these heroes.

The method to be employed should be that of a simple text-book, supplemented by narration by the teacher, by illustrative material in the form of interesting contemporaneous narratives, and by photographs, slides, visits to museums, and other means of vivifying the past. At every possible point the work in history should strengthen and be strengthened by the work in language and in geography.

The reasons for recommending the preliminary survey of European history before taking up American history and before taking up the study of the same period in the high school are that the underlying principle is similar to one that is in successful operation in Germany — educational principles discovered by one group of instructors and successfully put into practice by them can be adapted to meet the needs of other groups of instructors without the necessity of rediscovery; that it gives a good basis for high-school work, since it follows the law "that one obtains knowledge by adding to the ideas which one already has, new ideas organically related to the old;" that the

substitution of a brief course in European history for a portion of the American history now taught will conduce to a better appreciation of the important facts in American history, and that, as a result, the pupil will have a better understanding of the history of America after one year of special study given to it than he now has after two years' study without this preliminary acquaintance with European history; that it gives an outlook into the world of history and of literature to those who cannot complete a high-school course, and thus gives them resources within themselves that must be of value in their future lives; that it would do something to make fruitful what is now too often a barren waste — the curriculum of the primary and the grammar grades; that its adoption would do something to raise the educational and professional qualifications of teachers, since the knowledge required to carry it out would be more extensive than that demanded by the present curriculum; that through it something would be done to unify the subjects in the curriculum, which is now too often vague and formless; that since many schools in America now have a course similar to the one here advocated, it is a practical one.

Grade IX. — Ancient history to *circa* 800 A. D.

Grade X. — Mediæval and modern history from *circa* 800 A. D. to the present time.

Grade XI. — English history.

Grade XII. — American history, including civil government.

The object of the work in the high school should be to provide a unifying principle in the study of history, to widen the horizon of the boy, to add to and develop the knowledge that he already has.

The means employed should be a text-book covering the ground already covered in the grammar grade, but doing so in a more advanced manner; also, parallel readings, special reports, and other means that may suggest themselves to the teacher as practicable and desirable methods of reaching the end sought. In considering the question of methods it must be added that two principles are never to be lost sight of,—first, that what the boy still needs is not philosophical generalization, but concrete facts and illustrations;[1] and second, that as in the preceding grades the work in history is to be closely related to the other parts of the curriculum.

The selection of the material recommended involves a second complete survey of history, but a survey from a higher point. In his first

[1] *Report of the Committee of Seven*, p. 57.

survey the boy has had little interest in problems of government, in the development of art and of literature, in the causes and results of great movements, but his interest in all these questions is now being awakened, and, at the same time, the survey in the grammar grade has given a foundation on which these new interests may be built up.

The specific way in which the material selected for the second survey may be differentiated from that of the first survey is indicated in the *Report of the Committee of Seven*.[1]

The fundamental principle in these recommendations is that the best grasp of historical facts and the best training in "historical-mindedness" is that which is gained through the study of history in several concentric circles. In no country has the teaching of history been so successful as in Germany, and we may well look to her for an example in the selection and arrangement of historical material. In every German state the program is arranged on this principle, and this is in part an explanation of the great success of historical study in that country.[2] The same principles have been carried out with equal success in more than one school here.[3]

These suggestions have been founded on experience and observation, and they are believed to be in accord with the development of educational theory. The plan here presented is suggested, not as being ideal in itself, but as one that more nearly approximates that ideal than that often found in the public schools; it is suggested with full realization of the fact that it possibly cannot be at once adopted *in extenso* by a single school; it is recommended because of the belief that it is better to have an ideal toward which to work than to remain content with unsatisfactory conditions.

IX.

CONCLUSION.

The attempt has been made to set forth some of the essential and fundamental differences between the original records on which the historian bases his work and the history that has been derived from it.

[1] Pp. 53–85. This part of the *Report* was written by other members of the committee, but it formulates my own views on the subjects touched upon.

[2] A more detailed account of history in the German schools is given in the *Report of the Committee of Seven*, Appendix III.

[3] Specific programs will be presented at the February meeting.

If this difference is clearly perceived, it is believed that much of the ambiguity and confusion that has attended the discussion of the use of the sources in the elementary and secondary grades will be cleared away; that the place of the sources in historical writing will be recognized, but that no attempt will be made to give them a factitious importance in the grades; that they will not be distorted from their necessary and legitimate uses by the historian; that they will not be converted into stilts for the use of the immature student.

The attempt has also been made to show the development in the ideals of the historian in regard to his selection of material, and that personal tastes and interests have largely determined the nature of the literary form in which the results of his investigations are given to others. The object of the historian has also shifted from the consideration of somewhat narrow interests to those that are world-wide, with the result that some have seen in this very widening of interests the disintegration of the subject itself. The result, however, has been not to remove history from the subjects to which students turn their attention, but to clarify existing ideas in regard to its relation to other branches of human knowledge.

But not only has confusion existed in regard to the mutual relations of the record and of the history derived from that record; not only has there been a failure to see clearly the relationship between history and other subjects — there has even been uncertainty as to the very object to be kept in mind in the teaching of history, an uncertainty largely growing out of the failure to consider the teaching of history as depending on psychological laws.

This confusion, uncertainty, and lack of clearness of thought has been far from strange — indeed, it is rather to be wondered at that so much progress has been already made. History is a new subject in the curriculum, and it has been difficult to determine whether it was to supplant one of the older subjects, whether it was to be an excrescence in the curriculum, or whether it was to take a natural place and give its friendly support to other branches. It must also be remembered that the very study of the science of education is in itself a new one, at least in America, as the existence of this society evidences, and that the place to be occupied by history could not be determined before a systematic study of educational psychology had been made.

It lies in the power of a body of men like those comprising the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education to bring about

great improvement in the teaching of history in this country through its insistence on the application of a rational study of psychology to the teaching of history, and an equal insistence on the necessity of a knowledge of history on the part of those who undertake to teach it. No study of method can take the place of a study of history. No method can take the place of a genuine love of history for history's own sake. No method, however successful it may have proved with one teacher, can be slavishly imitated by another. Every book on method is, in one sense, useless to the good teacher. Method can only be the seed that is planted on fertile soil. Unless the seed — the method — changes its form and develops into the plant it ceases to have life. Any method bears fruit only after it has been transformed in the mind of the living teacher, and has blossomed into new forms.

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PROPOSED PLAN OF WORK

FOR

THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

The scientific study of any subject implies an effort to get at its fundamental principles, and to make as complete and thorough investigation of its problems as specialists in that department can make. The principles upon which education may be safely based are still more or less in dispute, and the foundations of education as a science are still open to serious study and discussion. But especially when we leave the field of theoretical pedagogy, as based upon physiology, psychology, and ethics, and turn to the practical applications, many difficult problems still confront the teacher.

There are many organizations of teachers in clubs and associations, which are of great benefit in their helpfulness to teachers, but there is still need of an organization of educational specialists who will take up, one after another, the more difficult problems for the purpose of giving them complete investigation and rigid study.

Those college and university teachers who are working in departments of education are especially qualified by training, experience, and by the nature of their professional work to undertake this sort of study. A goodly number, also, of teachers in normal schools are working in a directly practical way upon the large educational problems, and their experience will be of great service. Many, also, of the superintendents in city school systems are deeply interested in the working out of great educational problems. Many of the college and university specialists in history, natural science, literature, political science, and sociology are better equipped than anyone else for scientific investigations along the line of educational work which touches their special subjects.

There are, therefore, both among men and women devoted to educational work, a large number who are deeply interested in promoting the study and expert investigation of important educational problems.

The general organization and framework of such a society is already provided for in this society for the Scientific Study of Teaching. The whole efficiency of this organization must rest in its executive committee, of which the president and secretary are members.

This executive committee of six members has it within its power to lay out a campaign into the fields of educational research and discussion which may prove of the highest value. In the first place it is its business to see that there be submitted to the society each year strong scientific papers on one or more leading questions. The expression "strong scientific papers" should be given a more pronounced meaning. Each paper which receives the approval of the executive committee as worthy of serious discussion at its sessions, should survey the whole subject completely from a strictly scientific point of view, commanding also its entire literature and such resources of experience as are necessary to a sound judgment. Narrow, one-sided discussions should not be accepted by the committee. Papers which come up to this high standard cannot be worked out in a few weeks. They can only be prepared by those who have had leisure for many-sided study and thought upon all phases of an educational problem. Age, experience, and ripe study by those who have had opportunity for specialization can alone furnish the best products.

It is not difficult to set up in theory such a standard of superior work as this, but the more serious difficulty for the executive committee is found in the effort to provide for a regular succession of such papers by urging qualified specialists and experts in different parts of the country to plan this kind of work two or three years ahead of its final publication. If such a thing were possible, it would be well to make a systematic distribution of the leading questions among trained and interested specialists, who could be picked out here and there in various institutions of the land.

In order to facilitate the work of the committee in this kind of distribution of topics, it seems advisable at the annual sessions to discuss the general question: "What are the leading topics demanding study and discussion, and who are the men and women best fitted by professional training and experience to give them a thorough and systematic treatment.

Such papers as we have in mind would be too long for publication in educational journals. They come much nearer those complete scientific monographs on special subjects which are sometimes published in pamphlet form in this country and in Europe by specialists, or as the result of special investigations. There is, however, a special advantage in bringing such superior monographs or treatises into the field of free and full discussion before a society of educational specialists.

The executive committee itself should consist of broad-minded specialists who represent the principal fields of educational thought. It will demand considerable time upon the part of the executive committee to give the papers presented a satisfactory review preparatory to publication in the yearbooks. It is to be desired that no papers be published merely upon the reputation of the author, but wholly upon account of their scientific worth.

In accordance with plans followed out in the old society, the yearbook will be published in two parts in time for the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, in February, and for the meeting of the National Educational Association in the summer. In order to accomplish the best results, it is desirable that the papers shall be published at least two months before the time of meeting for discussion. One of the most serious difficulties has been found in the effort to secure a careful study of the papers before the meeting for discussion. This certainly must be accomplished, if good results are to be achieved.

In order to secure this, only the active members of the society, who are expected to give the papers a thorough study, are allowed to participate in the discussion. Exception to this rule may be found in the case of those specialists, not members, whom the author of the paper desires especially to invite to a share in the discussion. It will be a good plan for those who have not read the papers with careful scrutiny to abstain from sharing in the discussions. There is no economy in a loose and incoherent discussion which is not based rigidly upon the points of view taken by the writer of the paper. Misunderstandings and irrelevant debate are the necessary result.

There should be at each of the half-year meetings one session of perhaps two hours at which only the active members are present, and only those of the active members take part in the discussion who have qualified themselves by thoughtful study of the paper. It may be found difficult in practice to apply this rule of exclusion, as free

opportunity must be offered to the active members, but it may be possible to establish this tradition of close limitation of discussion so firmly that individual members will have a conscience against violating it.

The best results, therefore, are not likely to be attained in large assemblages of several hundred teachers where elaborate speeches are to be made, but rather in informal round-table discussions, where truth may be sought by candid interchange of opinions, by question and answer, and by simple discussion, free from oratory.

It seems advisable also to hold a second meeting, for all the members of the society, where the whole subject is thrown open to popular discussion. Such has been the character heretofore of meetings of the Herbart Society, and they seem to have served an excellent purpose. These open meetings give an opportunity for many of the teachers to become interested in the work of the society, and to bring about a much wider distribution of its literature among thoughtful teachers.

If the plan above outlined of publishing the papers two months or more before the meeting and of providing for close and rigorous discussion proves feasible, it may be possible also for the active members in different parts of the country to gather a class of interested people together for the reading and discussion of the papers at home before coming to the national meeting. This is by no means impossible, and, if it could be brought about, would insure the right kind of study of the papers as a preparation for the general meeting.

An equally valuable plan can be followed by superintendents and teachers in educational departments of colleges and normal schools, if they will collect their teachers and friends on their return home from the national meeting for the reading, study, and discussion of the papers. This has already been done to a large extent in many parts of the country with the publications of the Herbart Society, and considerable assistance has been rendered in such studies by publishing at the end of the yearbook a list of references and a course of readings along the line of important topics. A large number of local clubs were organized in different parts of the country, and accomplished in this way excellent study work. This plan might be followed out with advantage in the future work of the society, and still more complete lists of references on important topics be furnished in the yearbook for the purpose of encouraging this kind of study.

The careful discussions at the half-yearly meetings of the society

are likely to give a broader and more critical view of the subject than the paper itself. It seems desirable that the substance of these discussions should be worked over by the secretary of the society, published, and sent out, as soon as feasible, to all the members as a supplement to the original papers. In some cases members may wish to put their discussion or criticism into complete form as a contribution to the general discussion, and these, if approved by the secretary, could be incorporated into the supplements. This plan of publishing a supplement containing the discussions of the papers was carried out at several meetings of the Herbart Society, and proved an interesting and satisfactory addition to the yearbooks.

In the discussion of an important topic which involves various interesting and unsolved difficulties, it may be necessary to provide for a series of papers running through two or more of the yearbooks, so as to bring the entire treatment into a complete form and provide that the whole subject be properly canvassed in the discussion. There are indeed a good many subjects of pressing interest to the schoolmaster which cannot be treated in a single paper, such for example, as the social function of the school, the relation of technical education to the common school, and others.

It is much to be desired that the author of any given paper shall be present at the meeting and participate in its discussion. It has been difficult heretofore in many cases to secure this result, and it may be well for the society to pay the expenses of the author, made necessary by attendance upon the meeting, so as to secure his presence. At least this proposition may be worthy of consideration by the society.

In order to begin the sifting-out process by which the leading topics deserving discussion may be brought to mind and clearly defined, a list of suggested topics is appended. The members to whom this paper is sent are requested to add other topics to the list and to suggest criticisms of the formulation of those already stated. Those having such suggestions of topics or criticisms are requested to send them promptly to the secretary, C. A. McMurry, De Kalb, Illinois. If it seems desirable to those most interested, this whole paper with its series of topics appended, will be published in the forthcoming yearbook of the reorganized society. It may seem worth while to give this proposed plan a careful discussion and criticism at our next meeting in Chicago, February 26, 27, and 28.

THEMES FOR DISCUSSION

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PROBLEMS.

1. The proper organic relation of the kindergarten to the primary school.

2. A plan for organizing into a connected and coherent series the constructive exercises of the kindergarten and primary school, and the manual training and domestic science of intermediate and grammar grades.

3. The principles and plan of a general course in elementary science throughout the grades of the common school.

4. How are the social and industrial life of our time to find fit incorporation into the school life and studies?

5. The function and plan of the course of study in drawing and its relation to other work of the common school.

6. In what studies and grades is an oral method of instruction desirable in the common schools.

7. What can the common school do to promote in children an appreciation of good books and a proper use of libraries?

8. The problem of teaching good English and grammar in the public schools.

9. What is the function of fine art as revealed in literature, painting, sculpture, architecture and music in the common school?

10. How can the complexity of the modern school course be reduced to simplicity so as to preserve a strong discipline and avoid superficiality?

11. How secure the proper balance between intellectual and motor powers?

12. How can city children get the best educational advantages of play?

13. What form of compulsory school law succeeds best in American communities?

HIGH SCHOOLS.

1. What standard courses should the public high school in cities furnish?

2. What should be the relation of the courses of study in the high school to technological and industrial schools, to normal schools, to professional schools and universities?

3. To what extent should special training for special callings be provided in the high school?

4. What pedagogical training is needed by teachers in secondary schools?

5. Should the elements of high-school work in languages, mathematics and natural science be taught in the upper grades of the elementary schools?

6. Upon what principles should election of studies be determined in the high school?

7. How reconcile educational ideals of culture, morality, mental discipline and utility in the high school?

8. In what order should the high school teach the natural sciences?

9. To what extent should the laboratory be used in the high school?

10. Shall the high-school student study few or many subjects at one time?

11. Relation of secondary-school science to nature work in the grades.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

1. To what extent can a standard professional course for normal schools be determined?

2. What are the faults and merits of psychological study in normal schools?

3. Should method of instruction be taught as a separate branch of study or only in connection with the teaching of arithmetic, history, etc.?

4. In what relation should the teachers of regular subjects stand to the practice department in normal schools?

5. How should the practice department of a normal school be conducted?

UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES.

1. What are the functions of a professor of pedagogy at a university?

2. What is the value of the history of education as taught in universities?

3. What are the purposes and values of a psychological laboratory at a university?

4. To what extent has modern child-study determined scientifically, the distinctive periods of physical and mental growth in children?

5. What correspondences have been established by historical and scientific investigations between race development and individual development?

6. What are the merits and faults of a lecture method at universities?

7. What value has the history of philosophy for teachers?

8. Is a practice school necessary in the pedagogical department of a university?

SUPERVISION.

1. What system of tests may be best applied to secure well qualified teachers in cities?

2. What is the best system of supervision of grade teachers, by special supervisors, principals, district superintendents, circular directions, from the office, etc.?

3. How can teachers meetings be made most effective for the improvement of teachers?

4. What are the faults and merits of a full and detailed course of study?

5. From what sources do superintendents get the best qualified teachers?

6. How may the individuality and freedom of the grade teacher be best preserved under a good system of supervision?

7. The consolidation of rural schools, its difficulties and advantages.

8. What is the best system of supplying children with text-books in the common schools?

9. Plans of grading and promotion.

10. How to deal with truants.

11. To what extent should the withdrawal of children in intermediate and grammar grades influence the course of study and method of teaching?

12. Compulsory education by the state.

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

MEETING FOR THE REORGANIZATION OF THE NATIONAL HERBART SOCIETY.

AT THE AUDITORIUM HOTEL, CHICAGO, THURSDAY EVENING, FEBRUARY 28, 1901.

The meeting was called to order by Professor Charles De Garmo, in accordance with the circular notice sent out by a committee of the old society. Professor De Garmo was elected chairman of the meeting and Charles A. McMurry secretary.

A statement was made by the secretary in regard to the purpose of the meeting, namely, the reorganization of the old society under a different name and with a somewhat modified purpose. There was considerable general discussion of a suitable name, and various propositions were made. The name finally agreed upon was *The National Society for the Scientific Study of Education.* A constitution was then adopted by vote of those members present and wishing to be regarded as members of the reorganized society.

After the adoption of the constitution and in accordance with its provisions, an election of officers was held as follows: for president, Nicholas Murray Butler; secretary-treasurer, Charles A. McMurry. Four additional members of the executive committee were elected, as follows: Charles De Garmo, William L. Bryan, David Felmley, and Edward R. Shaw.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT.

A financial report of the condition of the National Herbart Society was made by the secretary, showing that all the bills of the old society for printing, publications, and other expenses had been met and paid, and that a considerable stock of the old yearbooks and supplements was still on hand. This financial statement was accepted and approved by a vote of the society. It was voted that the secretary of the National

Herbart Society should be allowed from the future sale of the yearbooks $200, partly in payment of expenses incurred, and partly for services rendered. A motion was also carried that the secretary of the reorganized society should be allowed $50 for clerical help during the ensuing year.

GENERAL PLAN AND PURPOSE OF THE SOCIETY.

A few of the leading purposes of this society as reorganized may be briefly stated as follows:

1. To secure strong original papers by leading specialists in education upon paramount topics which demand thorough investigation and study.

2. It shall be the special province of the executive committee to set a number of specialists at work upon important topics, so that thoroughly complete and masterly papers may be in readiness from time to time for publication in the yearbooks and for discussion at the meetings of the society.

3. The yearbooks of the society containing these papers shall be sent out to the active members and others interested several weeks before the meeting, for discussion, so that they may be read and carefully studied before the time set for discussion.

4. Only those active members who have made an exhaustive study of the papers are expected to take part in the discussion.

5. Reports of these discussions may be printed where it seems advisable.

A BOUND VOLUME OF THE YEARBOOKS OF THE NATIONAL HERBART SOCIETY.

The five yearbooks and corresponding supplements of the National Herbart Society from 1895 to 1901 have been well bound in a single volume, which will be sent to any address for $5. This volume of the yearbooks of the National Herbart Society has been in much demand for use in public and private libraries. In order to make this volume complete for all the publications of the society, three of the supplements were reprinted. The yearbook and supplement for any one year may be obtained from the secretary at the rate of $1 for each year's publications.

NEXT REGULAR MEETING.

The next regular meeting of the society will be held at Chicago in conjunction with the Department of Superintendence, February 25, 26,

and 27, 1902. A yearbook will be sent to active members and to others who desire it in the latter part of January, containing the papers for discussion. Those associate members who desire copies of this yearbook should send in their names to the secretary, C. A. McMurry, University of Chicago, with the fee of $1. All persons desiring it are eligible to associate membership.

The principal paper in the forthcoming yearbook is on "History in the Schools," by Miss Lucy M. Salmon, of Vassar College. The general meeting for its discussion will be held Thursday, February 27, at 2 P. M. A special meeting for the active members of the society will be held Friday, February 28, at 9:30 A. M., at the Auditorium Hotel, Chicago.

CONSTITUTION

OF

THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION.

[REORGANIZED NATIONAL HERBART SOCIETY.]

ARTICLE I. — ITS OBJECT.

The name suggests the general purpose of the society. It contemplates a serious, continuous, intensive study of educational problems. It stands for no particular creed or propaganda. In aim and spirit and method it seeks to be scientific.

ARTICLE II. — PLAN OF ORGANIZATION.

SECTION 1. *Members.*— (1) The society consists of active and associate members.

(2) Active Members. The active membership shall, for the present, be limited to one hundred. Only active members may take part in the discussions.

(3) The chief qualification for active membership shall be the possession of time, ability, and inclination to undertake a serious scientific study of educational problems. A fee of three dollars per year for each active member will be charged.

(4) Vacancies, when occurring in the active body, shall be filled by election at the first meeting.

(5) Associate Members. Anyone may become an associate member by paying a yearly fee of one dollar. Such members shall be entitled to receive the publications of the society and to attend its public meetings.

SEC. 2. *Officers and Committees.*— The officers of the society shall consist of a president, a secretary-treasurer, and executive committee, who shall be elected yearly at the winter session of the society. The executive committee shall consist of the president, the secretary, the treasurer, and four other active members of the society, of whom two are to be elected each year at the winter meeting. It shall be the duty of the executive committee to carry into effect the will of the active membership respecting the subjects to

be discussed at its meetings, the matter which is to appear in its publications, and to present at each meeting names of suitable candidates for admission to active membership. Election to active membership is by a majority vote of the active members present.

SEC. 3. *Publications.*—(1) The society shall publish "The Yearbook of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education," and such supplements as it sees fit to add.

(2) The time of publishing the yearbook or supplements shall be determined by the committee.

(3) These publications shall be sent to the active and associate members of the society.

ARTICLE III.

SECTION 1. *Time and Place of Meeting.*—(1) This society shall meet twice a year.

(2) One of these meetings shall be in connection with, and at the same time and place as, the National Educational Association; the other in connection with, and at the same time and place of meeting as, the Department of Superintendence.

(3) All the details of these meetings shall be determined by the executive committee.

ARTICLE IV.

This constitution may be amended at any regular winter meeting by vote of two-thirds of the active members present.

LIST OF ACTIVE MEMBERS.

Frank G. Blair, State Normal School, Charleston, Ill.
Richard G. Boone, superintendent, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Francis B. Brandt, Central High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
Elmer E. Brown, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.
George P. Brown, editor, Bloomington, Ill.
Martin G. Brumbaugh, commissioner of education, San Juan, Porto Rico
William L. Bryan, University of Indiana, Bloomington, Ind.
George V. Buchanan, 614 W. 7th street, Sedalia, Mo.
Edward F. Buchner, New York University, New York City.
Frederick Burk, State Normal School, San Francisco, Cal.
Nicholas Murry Butler, Columbia University, New York City.
C. P. Carey, Wisconsin School for the Deaf, Delavan, Wis.
Clarence F. Carroll, superintendent, Worcester, Mass.
John W. Cook, State Normal School, DeKalb, Ill.
Ellwood I. Cubberley, Stanford University, California.
Washington S. Dearmont, State Normal School, Cape Girardeau, Mo.
Charles De Garmo, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
John Dewey, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Edwin G. Dexter, University of Ill., Champaign, Ill.
Richard E. Dodge, Columbia University, New York City.
F. B. Dresslar, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.
Samual T. Dutton, Columbia University, New York City.
Charles B. Dyke, Kamehameha School, Honolulu, Hawaii.
W. H. Elson, superintendent, Grand Rapids, Mich.
Frank A. Fitzpatrick, publishers' agent, Boston, Mass.
David Felmley, State Normal University, Normal, Ill.
Charles B. Gilbert, superintendent, Rochester, N. Y.
Newell D. Gilbert, superintendent, DeKalb, Ill.
J. P. Gordy, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
James M. Greenwood, superintendent, Kansas City, Mo.
William N. Hailman, superintendent, Dayton, Ohio.
Reuben P. Halleck, Boys' High School, Louisville, Ky.
Rufus H. Halsey, State Normal School, Oshkosh, Wis.
Walter L. Hervey, Department of Education, New York City.
Edgar L. Hewett, Normal University, Las Vegas, N. M.
M. J. Holmes, State Normal University, Normal, Ill.
Wilber S. Jackman, Chicago Institute, Chicago, Ill.

Jeremiah W. Jenks, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
Lewis H. Jones, superintendent, Cleveland, Ohio.
Charles H. Judd, Wesleyan Uuiversity, Middletown, Conn.
Grant Karr, State Normal School, Oswego, N. Y.
J. A. Keith, State Normal School, DeKalb, Ill.
Ossian H. Lang, editor, New York City.
G. W. A. Luckey, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.
George H. Locke, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Livingston C. Lord, State Normal School, Charleston, Ill.
Frank A. Manny, Ethical Culture School, 109 W. 54th street, New York City.
Guy E. Maxwell, State Normal School, Mankato, Minn.
William H. Maxwell, superintendent, New York City.
Charles McKenny, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.
Charles A. McMurry, State Normal School, DeKalb, Ill.
Frank M. McMurry, Columbia University, New York City.
Israel C. McNeill, State Normal School, West Superior, Wis.
Will S. Monroe, State Normal School, Westfield, Mass.
Ernest C. Moore, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.
Frank Morton, Lowell High School, San Francisco, Cal.
Theodore B. Noss, State Normal School, California, Pa.
Michael V. O'Shea, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
Simon N. Patten, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
Francis W. Parker, Chicago Institute, Chicago, Ill.
John T. Prince, state agent, West Newton, Mass.
Charles R. Richards, Columbia University, New York City.
Stuart H. Rowe, supervising principal, New Haven, Conn.
James E. Russell, Columbia University, New York City.
Myron T. Scudder, State Normal School, New Paltz, N. Y.
Levi Seeley, State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.
Edward R. Shaw, New York University, New York City.
David E. Smith, State Normal School, Brockport, N. Y.
F. Louis Soldan, superintendent, St. Louis, Mo.
Edward D. Starbuck, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.
Z. X. Snyder, State Normal School, Greeley, Colo.
W. S. Sutton, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.
Spencer Trotter, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.
C. C. VanLiew, State Normal School, Chico, Cal.
James H. VanSickle, superintendent, Baltimore, Md.
Samuel Weir, New York University, New York City.
John J. Wilkinson, superintendent, Mattoon, Ill.
Lightner Witmer, University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia, Pa.
L. E. Wolf, superintendent, Kansas City, Kan.

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